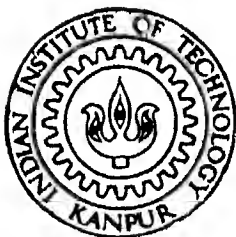


TECHMIG A Layout Tool for Technology Migration

by
Pradip Kumar Kar



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DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY KANPUR
MARCH 1998

TECHMIG A Layout Tool for Technology Migration

*A Thesis Submitted
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
Master of Technology*

by

Pradip Kumar Kar

to the

DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, KANPUR

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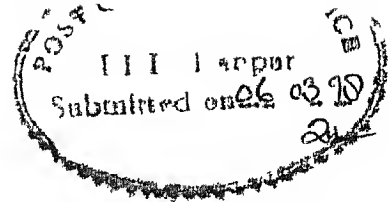
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the work contained in the thesis entitled “ **TECHMIG
A Layout Tool For Technology Migration**” by **Pradip Kumar Kar** has been carried out under my supervision and this work has not been submitted elsewhere for a degree

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Abstract

With numerous foundry services being made available for implementing systems on *VLSI* chips and with the rapid strides that are being made in the fabrication technology of these chips it is imperative from the point of view of economics to be able to migrate any design from one foundry specific technology to another as well as from a present generation fabrication technology to the next generation fabrication technology within the same foundry. As the ability to integrate and pack more devices within a die of silicon increases with every new generation of the fabrication technology the complexity of digital systems realizable in a single chip has also grown by leaps and bounds. To circumvent implementation bottlenecks a lot of research work has been carried out to fully automate the design of *VLSI* chips under prespecified area and performance criteria. The focus of the present thesis is on an important aspect of *VLSI* chip design known as *Physical Layout Design*.

The basic issue addressed here is the following *Is it possible to port and reuse existing cells in a particular generation of a fabrication technology to a new, but evolving generation by using the mask layout descriptions of the existing cells?"* As the creation and validation of the mask layout description of cells in any fabrication technology is a time consuming error prone tedious and costly process it is important to be able to make the best possible use of the existing layout resources accumulated from the initial fabrication process. This process is known as *technology migration*.

In this thesis study of some existing software tools and algorithms that have been employed for technology migration has been carried out. Some new approaches and the corresponding algorithms for carrying out technology migration has been proposed. These algorithms have been incorporated in a technology migrator called *TECHMIG*. *TECHMIG* has been developed as a part of this thesis. *TECHMIG* takes as its input the mask layout description of an existing cell expressed in the industry standard *Caltech Intermediate Format (CIF)*, along with a set of design rules specific to a new fabrication technology or a new foundry and a set of user specific design constraints. It then retargets the initial cell by producing its mask layout description in *CIF* which is appropriate for the targetted fabrication technology or the foundry.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

State of art *VLSI* fabrication technologies allows fabrication of devices with geometry smaller than 0.25 micron. Advances in *VLSI* fabrication will further lower this value in the near future. With smaller geometry the ability to fabricate systems on chip is already being demonstrated by many design houses. With the possibility of integrating increasingly complex designs in a single die of Silicon chip it is imperative to improve both design productivity as well as design quality by leveraging existing standard cell libraries developed for commercial purposes and research work. A large component of any library developmental work involves physical design and layout of cells or circuit elements for a prescribed set of foundry specific design rules. The library development work is in general carried out by a very skilled set of layout designer. With typical libraries that are being made available by foundries having more than a few hundred cells and megacells any library development for new *VLSI* fabrication processes and technologies with newer design rules is by and large a very time consuming, error prone and tedious activity. Each new library development generates very few newer cells but retargets existing cells in older technologies for the new design rules. Since the design rules are foundry

specific a cell designed for a particular foundry is useless for another foundry which obeys an entirely different set of design rules. If we have to fabricate the same cell in the second foundry we have to completely redesign the cell.

Generally, renewal of *VLSI* fabrication process is an evolutionary process with incremental changes being introduced in an existing set of design rules. As such, a set of layout resources accumulated from an old fabrication process must be best utilized to gain full advantages of the newer fabrication process. In this thesis, we address this issue. Specifically, we address the following question: *is it possible to use the full masked version of a cell designed in an older technology to create another cell with identical functionality and resource usage, while maintaining the same layout topology that was present in the original cell?* This process of exploiting the reusability of layout resources and translating it from one set of design rules to the other is called "*Technology Migration*".

To improve the design quality and design productivity, every manual process must be replaced by a well organized set of automatic/semiautomatic tools. Most design houses have a history of physical libraries that have been developed for different foundries and these serve as the starting point of the retargeting work. These cell layouts are manually edited and migrated to the target design rules set. This task is often very time consuming and manpower intensive. The motivation for automation arises due to the following factors:

- As fabrication technology advances rapidly, it often results in a changed fabrication process. The new changes result in a large scale change in the design rules.
- Circuit performance based on submicron technology is greatly affected by the signal delays. Hence, there arises a technical issue as to how to optimize shapes and sizes for different kinds of layout elements.

- In order to reduce the turn around time for the custom *VLSI* design it is of practical importance to be able to provide in advance a full set of cell libraries

The present thesis is devoted to addressing this problem and to develop a highly automated *CAD* tool for migrating cells from one foundry to the other. In this thesis we restrict ourselves to the problem of technology migration for designs based on the standard cell approach. In this chapter we first describe in details the process of technology migration and the basic migrator model that we have developed

1.1 Migration Tools, An Overview

There are two broad categories of methodologies capable of efficiently retargeting layout between various processes. These are

- To generate layout inside tools that can retarget the results based on different design rules
- To migrate *GDSII* or *CIF* libraries from one process to another

Each of these methodologies have their advantages and shortcomings. In both the methodologies once the migration technology file is written for one process the second process migration will be very fast assuming an evolution and not a revolution in the new *VLSI* fabrication process. Layout migration is inappropriate when there are drastic differences between the source and the target process e.g. migrating from a 2 metal layer process to a 3 metal layer process. Following are some of the characteristics of the two different approaches of technology migration cited above

Generating a new layout Here every cell should be generated inside the tool. The user needs to be an expert in not only laying out the cells but also in understanding the specific tool philosophy. The final results are not perfect in either methodology but in this case the user has to work within the tool to get the desired results. The demerit of this approach is that once out of system back annotation for subsequent improvements to the source is not possible. Further, it can not be used to migrate old libraries or chips that were not previously developed with this methodology. The principal advantage with this approach is that cells/blocks topology can be altered inside the tool.

Migrating the GDSII or CIF In this approach one can generate the libraries with any kind of layout editor or else one can use old cell layouts. These tools use the standard *CIF* or *GDSII* formats as input and the user may not have to be a layout expert to use the converter. If the result of the conversion is not satisfactory, a normal layout editor can be used to change the source. The principal shortcoming of this approach is that the cell topology cannot be changed to take the advantage of a different process. We adopt this approach for our technology migration tool.

Migration tools also fall into two other categories viz *conversion* and *compactor* tools. A conversion tool converts a layout from one process to another. A tool such as *Dracula* from *Cadence Design Systems* can do the conversion, but needs additional programming to do compaction.

By contrast, a compaction tool accepts an existing layout in form of *GDSII* or *CIF* format, then applies the design rule files for a new process. The compactor then shrinks the existing layout to a smaller geometry layout converting the layout in the process. In operation, the compactor shrinks the cell in horizontal direction until a design rule is broken, then performs a similar task in the vertical direction. Afterwards, it begins to apply additional algorithms to further reduce the cell size. We follow the

compaction approach rather the conversion approach for migrating the layout. In this section we describe the basic technology migrator tool *TECHMIG* developed as a part of this thesis work, its user interfaces and its internal structure. In subsequent chapters we will describe the process of carrying out layout compaction.

1.2 TECHMIG

1.2.1 User Interfaces

The various user interfaces of the *TECHMIG* tool is shown in Figure 1. The principal component is the central block *TECHMIG*. The other blocks are the user interfaces. These are described as follows.

1.2.1.1 The Input Layout

The basic input to the technology migrator is a description of the original cell to be migrated. Almost all the compaction algorithms reported in literature take a symbolic description of the layout. However, in order to capture the full mask features of a layout the symbolic descriptions are inconvenient. Prior to fabrication the cell must be available in the mask layer description format rather the symbolic format. The symbolic representation is inconvenient and infeasible in representing some extended regions such as *n-well* and *p-well* in *CMOS* technology. Thus, shape description at mask level rather than the symbolic description was the preferred choice as an input to the tool. We assume the standard *Caltech Intermediate Form (CIF)* representation of a layout. The details of *CIF* format are given in [1]. However, we deviate slightly to follow the Compass tool compatible *CIF* version.

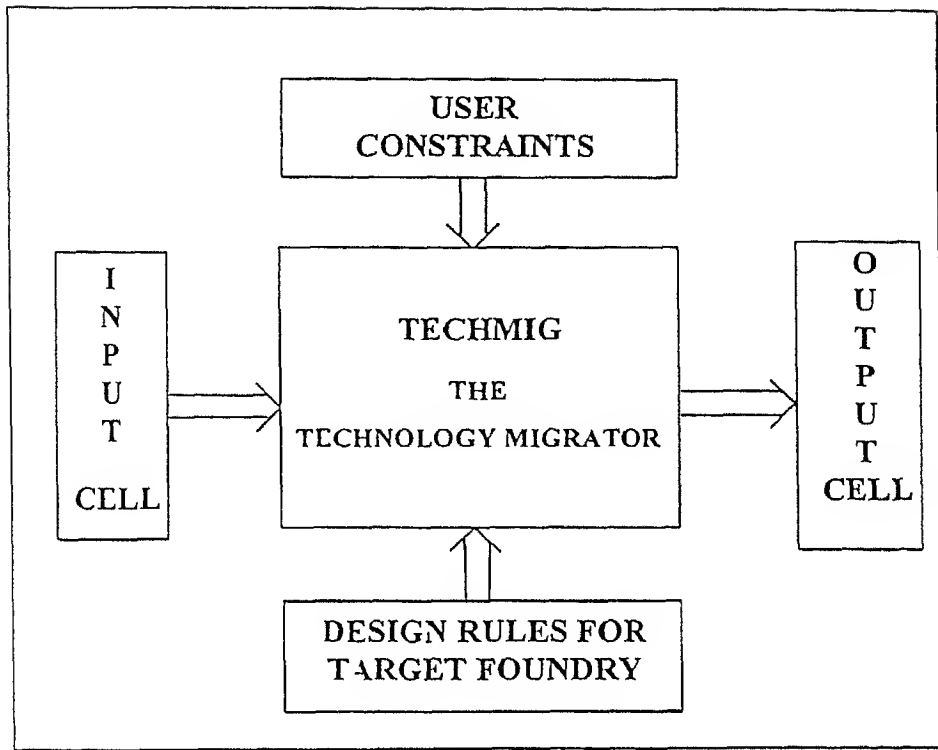


Figure 1 The technology migrator *TECHMIG* with its user interfaces

1 2 1 2 The Design Rules

Layout rules or design rules are constraints imposed on the geometry of an integrated circuit layout in order to guarantee that the circuit can be fabricated with an acceptable yield. These rules are essential for any design implementation to match the fabrication process specifications. Adhering to the design rules is essential for any product to be manufacturable and reliable after fabrication. The main objective of a set of design rules is to ensure optimum performance with minimum implementation area without compromising production yield, reliability or functionality of the system being integrated into a chip. The design rules act as an interface between the circuit

designer and the process engineer. Circuit designers in general want a tighter, smaller design that results in higher performance and higher circuit density. The process engineer on the other hand wants a reproducible and high yield process. In general, design rules represent the best possible compromise between intrinsic device performance and yield. In general, more conservative the rules are, the more likely the circuit will function, but with relaxed performance. On the other hand, if the layout rules are very aggressive, it results in better circuit performance due to reduced parasitic and improved characteristics. The design rules primarily address two issues:

- The geometrical reproduction of features that can be produced by mask making and the lithographic processes
- The interference constraints between different layers

The fundamental unit in the definition of a set of design rules is the *minimum line width*, which is defined as the minimum mask dimension that can be safely transferred to the semiconductor material. It is set by the resolution of the patterning process. At least two basic approaches are taken in describing the dimensions in design rules:

Scalable Dimensions The scalable design rules, also called the *lambda* (λ) based rule, was made popular by Mead and Conway [1]. It defines the entire set of design rules as a function of a single parameter called *lambda* (λ), which is specific to the particular fabrication process. In Mead and Conway [1], the basic unit of length measurement is equal to the fundamental resolution of the process itself. *Lambda* is defined as the distance by which a geometrical feature on any one layer may stray from another geometrical feature on the same layer or on another layer, considering all the processing factors and adding an appropriate safety factor. The value of *lambda* is set by phenomena associated with the fabrication process, such as over-etching, misalignment between mask levels, distortion of the silicon wafer (run out) due to high temperature processing, and overexposure and underexposure of resist.

In this method the rules are chosen so that a design is easily ported over a cross section of industrial process. Scaling of the minimum dimension is accomplished by simply changing the value of *lambda*. For a given process λ is set to a specific absolute value and all design functions are consequently translated into absolute numbers. The minimum line width of the process is set to 2λ . For instance for 1.2 micron process λ equals to 0.6 micron. The detail description of *lambda* based rules is given in [1] and [2].

Absolute Dimensions (microns) Here all the design rules are described as its absolute value. For example the minimum width of active diffusion area may be specified as 1 micron. Almost all the industries follow this style than following the *lambda* based rule. The reasons behind the adaptability of micron based rule are

- Adopting the *lambda* based rule exploits the advantages of linear scaling of the circuit elements. However, as the design complexity increases with simultaneous shrinkage of device size, linear scaling can lead to design rule violations. Linear scaling is only possible over a limited range of dimensions (for instance between 3 micron and 1 micron). When scaling over larger ranges (for instance into sub micron range) the relations between different layers tend to vary in a nonlinear way that cannot be adequately covered by linear scaling rules.
- Scaleable design rules are conservative. As they represent a cross section over different technologies, they have to represent the worst case rules for the whole set which results in an over dimensioned and less dense design.

For these reasons, scaleable design rules are avoided by industries. As circuit density is the primary goal in industrial design, most semiconductor industries tend to

use micron rules. However, the scaling and porting of designs between technologies under these rules is more demanding and has to be done either manually or by using rules. The reasons behind the adaptability of micron based rules are

TYPES OF DESIGN RULES

At a sufficiently high conceptual level all *CMOS* processes use the following features

- Two different substrates and/or wells (*CNW CPW*)
- Active regions for both p and n transistor as well as substrate taps (*CND CPD*)
- One or more polysilicon layers which serve the purpose of gate of the transistors as well as the interconnection layer (*CP*)
- One or more levels of metal interconnection layer (*CM CM2*)
- Contacts and vias to provide interlayer connections (*CC CC2*)

Detailed description of these layers are given in [3]. The design rules reflect the interaction of these layers in the layout plane. Broadly we can classify the whole set of design rules into following categories

- Size Rules
- Separation Rules
- Overlap / Extension Rules

Size Rules These rules refer to the minimum width of a wire on a particular layer. This is imposed to prevent thin features such as wires being narrow enough to break the connection and also to prevent electromigration. The minimum feature size of a device or an interconnect is determined by the line patterning capability of lithographic equipment used for IC fabrication. Interconnect lines usually run over a rough surface unlike the smooth surface over which active devices are patterned. Consequently the minimum feature size used for interconnects is somewhat larger

than that used for active devices. The various design rules under this category are given in [3]. Figure 2 gives an illustration. In Figure 2(a) the minimum required width of a *diffusion* layer is shown and in Figures 2(b) and (c) minimum width for *poly* and *metall* layer are shown.

Separation Rules Different features on the same layers or on interacting layers need to be separated from each other. These separation type design rules prevent the separate and isolated features from accidentally short circuiting with each other. Figure 2 illustrates some of the spacing rules. These spacing rules can also be specified conditionally. For example, the spacing between two metal layers depends upon the thickness of the wires and the extent to which the two wires run in parallel. The required spacing between two wide metal wires is somewhat larger than the required spacing between two narrow metal wires. Similarly, the required spacing between two parallel and long wires is somewhat higher than the required spacing between two short wires. These types of rules which depend upon certain characteristics of the primitives are called the *conditional rules*. *TECHMIG* has the capability of supporting such conditional rules. A detailed listing of various spacing rules, both conditional and unconditional, is given in [3]. The separation rules for three different layers are shown in Figure 2.

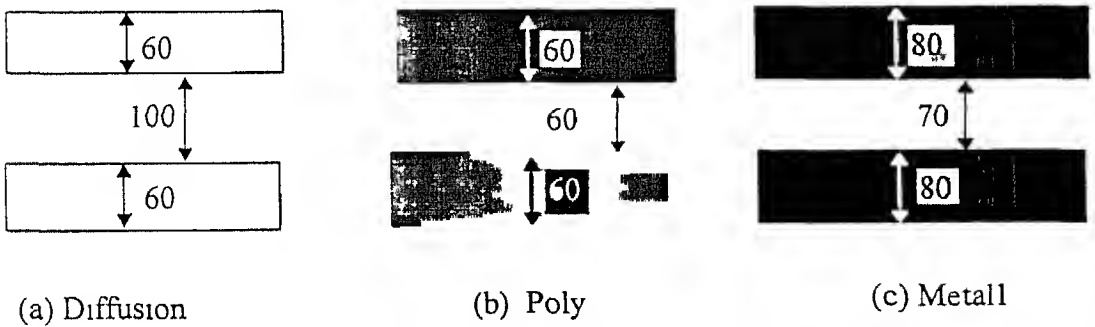


Figure 2 Illustrating size and separation rules for diffusion, poly, and metall layer. All dimensions are in hundreds of microns.

Overlap/Extension Rules The overlap rules ensure the integrity of the topological features in a layout. The extension rules particularly refers to the extension of poly region beyond the diffusion region defining the transistor. This prevents the formation of incorrect transistor or short circuited channel. In Figure 3(a) a contact overlap rule is shown and in Figure 3(b) the extension rule for a transistor is shown. Detailed listings of the various overlap/extension rules are given in [3].

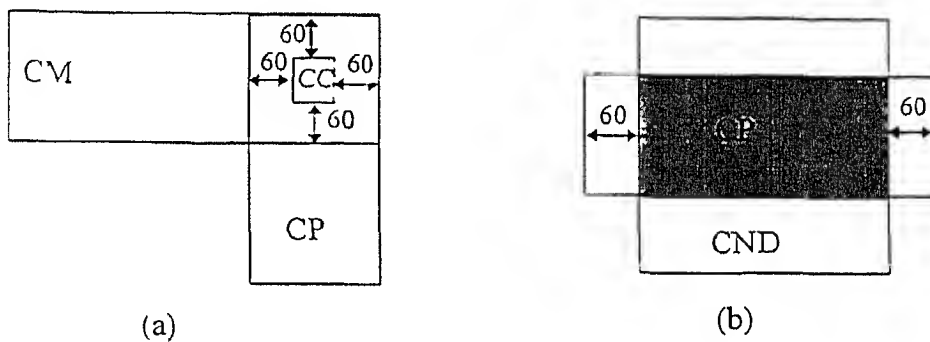


Figure 3 Illustrating overlap and extension rules (a) $CC - CM$ and $CC - CP$ overlap rule and (b) $CP - CND$ extension rule. Shaded area is the transistor. All dimensions are in hundreds of micron.

REPRESENTATION OF THE DESIGN RULES

Specific to a fabrication process, the number of design rules typically varies from one to a few hundred. These are normally specified in plain English by a one sentence description. Additionally, graphic illustration may be provided for the various cases of applying these rules. The common representation of fabrication rules is by a matrix of simple spacing rules between pairs of masks, with size and overlap rules stored in separate tables. Presently, various design houses follow the *EDIF* format for design rule description. However, we follow a uniform framework of design rule

description as described in [4]. Here we briefly describe the format for design rule description. The followings are some of the characteristics of this method of representation

- All rules are formulated in the same manner including space rules, size rules, overlap rules, and extension rules. This is essential for the compaction of shape objects.
- *Conditional rules* are allowed. We support the conditional rules related to some specific topology. Provisions are not made to represent other conditional rules related to parasitic resistance, capacitance, and reliability.
- A *linked list* structure instead of a full matrix form is used for the layout rules to reduce the space complexity. In matrix form, we also have to reserve spaces for noninteracting layers for which no design rule exist.

The boundary of a mask shape is a set of lines, with each line having two sides, namely *inside* or *outside*. The *inside* refers to the side of a line towards the mask, and the *outside* is the side not included in the mask. Since the rules depend upon both the mask level and the side of the boundary, an edge is defined as a boundary line with a side attribute. That means

$$edge = T(mask, side)$$

where T is the transformation applied to the mask depending upon the side attribute.

The required transformation T is defined as

$$T(mask, Inside) = mask$$

$$T(mask, Outside) = -mask,$$

For example, on an n diffusion layer (CND), CND represents an inside edge while \overline{CND} represents an outside edge.

A simple rule between a pair of masks can be expressed as *edge1 edge2 Value* where *Value* is the absolute value of the design rule between the corresponding edges in hundreds of micron (standard unit of the dimensions in CIF representation of the layout) Some examples of simple rules are shown in Figure 4 In Figure 4(a) the overlap and size rules are specified and in Figure 4(b) the spacing rules are specified Here *mask1* is a contact layer and *mask2* is a metal layer

The size rule for the metal wire is given as *CM CM Wmin Wmin* being the minimum required width of the metal wire If the minimum overlap of a metal layer on the contact is *Min_Overlap* the corresponding rule is specified by *CM CC Min_Overlap* Similarly, the minimum spacing rule between two poly layers is specified as *CP CP Min_space*

Conditional rules are represented by augmenting the edge description with another attribute For example the rule between two wide metal wires on the metal layer can be represented by *-CM_W CM_W value_w* and the rule between two narrow metals similarly can be represented by *CM_N CM_N value_n*

The detailed listing of various types of design rules under these categories (size space overlap) is specified in [3]

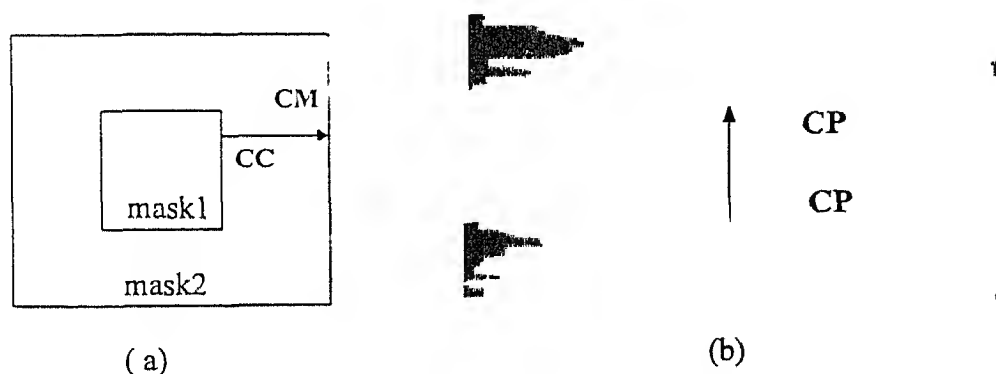


Figure 4 Illustrating the representation of design rules

1 2 1 3 User Constraints

These refer to some special types of rules as per the requirement of the user commonly known as the *user constraints (UC)*. These include the power bus (V_{DD} and V_{SS}) width, connector positions, transistor sizes, cell height, etc., pertinent to the cell. The fourth type of rules, i.e., the user constraints, does not depend on the particular fabrication process; rather, they are specified by the user depending upon his/her requirements. These being very specific to a layout, are represented in a separate format.

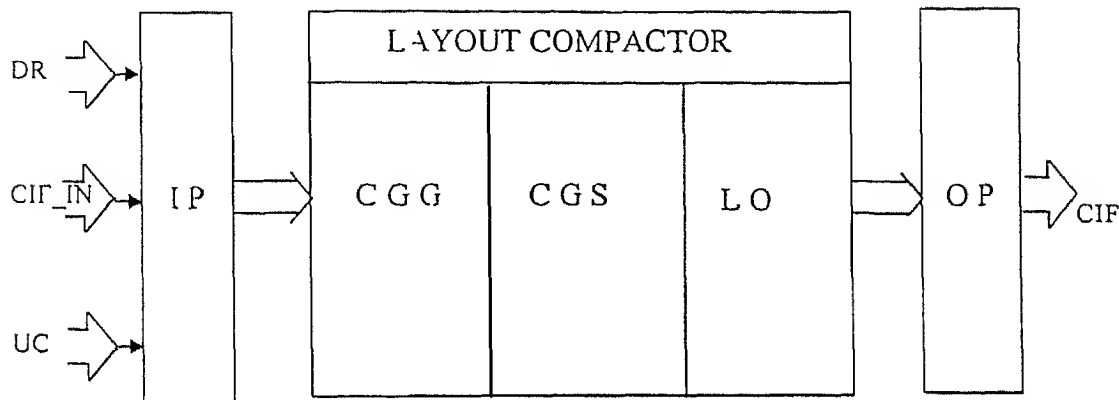
The rules regarding transistor resizing are stored in a table called *Transistor Resizing Table (TRT)*, which has information regarding the position of the transistor in the original layout, its W/L value in old technology, and its W/L value in the new technology. The other user constraints regarding power bus (V_{DD} and V_{SS}) width, cell height, and connector placement are provided by the user at run time.

1 2 1 4 Output Layout

As the tool does not change the topology of the original layout, the output layout has the same format as the input layout. Thus, our tool produces the output cell in *CIF* format compatible with Compass *CIF* version.

1 2 2 Internal Structure of TECHMIG

The different blocks that the tool consists of are shown in Figure 5 These are described as follows



- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 1 DR Design Rules | 2 UC User Constraints |
| 3 CIF_IN Input CIF description of cell | 4 IP Input Processor |
| 5 OP Output Processor | 6 CGG Constraint Graph Generator |
| 7 CGS Constraint Graph Solver | 8 LO Layout Optimizer |

Figure 5 Illustrating the internal structure of the technology migrator *TECHMIG*

1 2 2 1 Input Processor

The input to this block is a *Compass tool* compatible *CIF* description of the source layout the design rules files and various user constraints. The input processor (*IP*) reads these information processes it and stores the relevant information in some internal databases like an array of polygons or a linked list etc. The representation of design rules has already been described and these are stored in a linked list format. Here we give a brief description of the internal representation of the input cell. The *IP* handles this task of converting the *CIF* description of the layout to this internal representation.

Layout patterns for functional cells are composed of layout elements. Each element is represented as a polygon with attributes such as shape size location and the mask layer (such as diffusion metal etc). Such an individual element is also referred to as a *primitive*. We use the term polygon instead to refer to either a primitive or an element.

In almost all published articles the basic layout primitive is restricted to only rectangles. Any mask polygon of an arbitrary shape in the Manhattan geometry is sliced into a number of rectangles. In our approach we overcome this limitation and instead represent the polygon as a single entity. This form of representation helps in manipulating structures with non Manhattan geometry (e.g. 45 degree bent wires) and results in a constraint graph with minimum number of nodes. This accelerates the subsequent steps of involving constraint graph solution and optimization. The second advantage is due to the fact that every edge of the polygon contributes to a node in constraint graph so the number of nodes in constraint graphs due to a particular polygon is equal to the number of edges in the polygon. However if we take the rectangles as the basic layout entity and slice the polygon into a number of rectangles the number of nodes contributed to the constraint graph depends upon the slicing pattern as a particular polygon can yield many different combination of rectangles for

different slicing patterns. Optimal slicing of polygon is not well studied in literature and slicing to rectangles is not possible for layouts with non-Manhattan geometry. The entire layout is represented as a linked list of polygons. The constraint generation step utilizes this linked list representation of the layout to analyze all the aspects of the layout like separation, overlap, identification of transistors, etc.

1.2.2.2 Layout Compactor

A *compactor* takes as its input a *VLSI* layout and produces as its output an equivalent layout of smaller area. The compactor moves components and wires in the layout plane to optimize for two basic goals: that the layout should be of as small area as possible and that it should be design rule correct. The compactor moves subcells only in the plane preserving the cell topology. Auxiliary functionalities such as wirelength minimization, automatic jog insertion, contact optimization, etc. are generally incorporated to improve its capability to get a better layout according to specified performance criteria. The compaction problem is stated as a minimization problem that is: find the minimum of the area function subjected to linear and nonlinear constraints.

The compaction algorithms can be classified as *one dimensional* and *two dimensional* compaction according to the movements of components during the compaction process. In one dimensional compaction, the individual components are moved only in a single direction, either X or Y, in a single pass. For a complete compaction of a flattened layout, two passes of 1D compaction are necessary. In 2D compaction, a single pass can move a component in both directions.

Compactors can also be classified according to the algorithms used to position the components. The major techniques of the compaction are the *constraint graph compaction (CG)*, *virtual grid compaction (VG)* and *zone refining (ZR)* technique. The descriptions of these approaches are given in [5], [6] and [7]. We use the

constraint graph approach as it is the most popular and widely used method. We describe in details this approach in Chapters 2 and 3. The zone refining technique for IC layout compaction is given in [8].

Several one dimensional and two dimensional compaction algorithms are available in literature of which a versatile one is presented in [9] which is based on the solution of longest path. In [10] the compaction problem is translated into a *mixed integer linear programming* of a special kind and a graph based branch and bound algorithm is used to solve the problem. The literature presented in [11] uses an algorithm almost parallel to that presented in [9] except for the extra provision for considering the grid constraints if any. The problem of 2D compaction has been shown to be *NP complete* in [12]. In [12] a *branch and bound optimization (BBO)* method is proposed for 2D compaction the objective function being the minimum area of the bounding rectangle. The problem of automatic jog insertion during the compaction process is not well studied in literature.

We restrict ourselves to alternating passes of 1D compaction and formulate the compaction problem as a linear programming problem. We then solve this problem to minimize the bounding rectangle area. The total wirelength serves as the auxiliary optimization function. In our approach the entire compaction problem is split into the constraint generation, constraint solution and optimization phase. In block diagram notations these steps are shown in Figure 5. In the first step the various design rules are imposed on the initial layout. This requires the construction of the constraint graphs for both the X and the Y direction. The constraint generation is the most important step of the compaction process as it requires a detailed analysis of the layout features using computational geometry. After imposing the entire set of design rules the optimization problem is modeled as a linear programming problem. Using this formulation we search for a solution which leads to a layout with minimum area and which satisfies all the design rules. Wire length minimization is performed as a post optimization phase to additionally improve the layout to meet the

desired performance specifications. Wire length minimization reduces the net parasitic resistance of the layout by decreasing the wire length in highly resistive layers and increasing it in comparatively low resistive layers.

Various algorithms for generating the constraints are described in Chapter 2. In Chapter 3 we discuss the various aspects of constraint solving and wire length optimization and the corresponding algorithms.

1.2.2.3 Output Processor

In the compactor we translate the layout features and design rules into a graph called constraint graph and then solve the compaction problem using graph theoretic algorithms. The final stage in technology migration consists of output processing. In this phase the graphs representing the positions of the layout primitives after the optimisation phase are translated into the *CIF* format. Thus in this stage we obtain the output cell suitable for a target foundry.

Chapter 2

Constraint Generation

2.1 Introduction

One of the basic task in constraint graph based compaction is to translate the design rules into a set of constraints and imposing those constraints to the layout elements. These constraints reflect the sizes of the primitives, their relative positions in the layout and some specific design rule requirements pertinent to the target fabrication process. Keeping all these factors in view we can broadly classify the whole set of constraints into following categories:

- Constraints specifying minimum required width of a particular layer
- Constraints to represent minimum required spacing between two interactive layers
- Constraints to represent overlaps and extensions between primitives
- Transistor resizing constraints
- User constraints to fix the cell height, power bus width, and connector positions in the layout

In this chapter we describe various algorithms to generate these constraints. When the entire set of constraints is represented by a graph, the resultant graph is known as a constraint graph. Two graphs, one to represent constraints in horizontal (X) direction, called the horizontal constraint graph (G_H or HCG) and the other representing set of constraints in vertical (Y) direction, called the vertical constraint graph (G_V or VCG), needs to be generated. We describe these constraint graphs briefly as follows.

The layout is flattened and represented in a two dimensional (XY) plane. Each edge of a primitive, e.g., a rectangle, is represented as a node in constraint graph. A vertical edge contributes to a node in HCG and a horizontal edge contributes to a node in VCG . Any inclined edge is represented as a node in both G_H and in G_V . Two nodes in a constraint graph are linked by an arc if there exists any design rule which relates the corresponding edges of the primitives in the layout. Thus the two graphs G_H and G_V encode the set of constraints. G_H encodes horizontal constraints while G_V encodes vertical constraints. Each vertical or inclined edge in the layout is a node x_i in the graph G_H and each horizontal or inclined edge is a node y_j in the graph G_V . The graphs are directed acyclic graphs. Each directed arc in the graph corresponds to an inequality. Each arc (x_i, x_j, W_{ij}) has a weight W_{ij} associated with it representing the constraint between the vertical edges corresponding to the nodes x_i and x_j respectively. Implicitly the arc represents the inequality $X_j - X_i \geq W_{ij}$.

Similarly, each arc (x_i, x_j) is associated with a cost parameter C_{ij} that roughly indicates the resistance of associated layer. This cost parameter serves as a secondary objective for the compaction problem. Exact formulation of cost function and cost parameters are explained in Chapter 3.

Formally we define $G_H = \{X, E_x, W_x, C_x\}$ as a directed weighted graph. $X = \{x_i\}$ is the set of nodes in the graph, one for each edge of layout, and two special nodes S_x (source) and T_x (target or sink). S_x corresponds to the leftmost edge in any cell in the layout and T_x corresponds to the rightmost edge.

$E = \{ \langle x_i, x_j \rangle \mid x_i, x_j \in X \}$ is the set of arcs in the graph, one for each inequality

$W_i = \{ W_{ij} \mid \langle x_i, x_j \rangle \in E, W_{ij} \in R \}$ is the set of weights specifying the separation between the nodes x_i and x_j

$C_i = \{ C_{ij} \mid \langle x_i, x_j \rangle \in E, C_j \in R \}$ is the set of cost parameters related to layer resistance

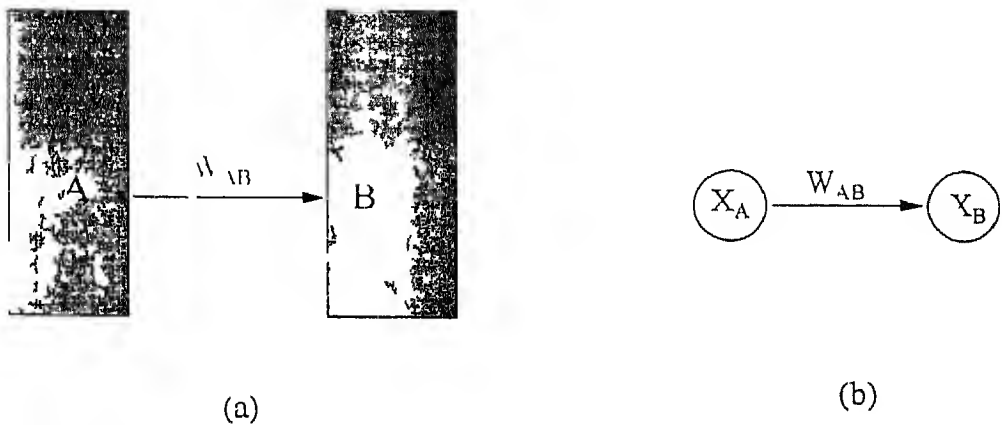


Figure 6 Illustrating a spacing constraint W_{AB} is the minimum required spacing between primitives A and B

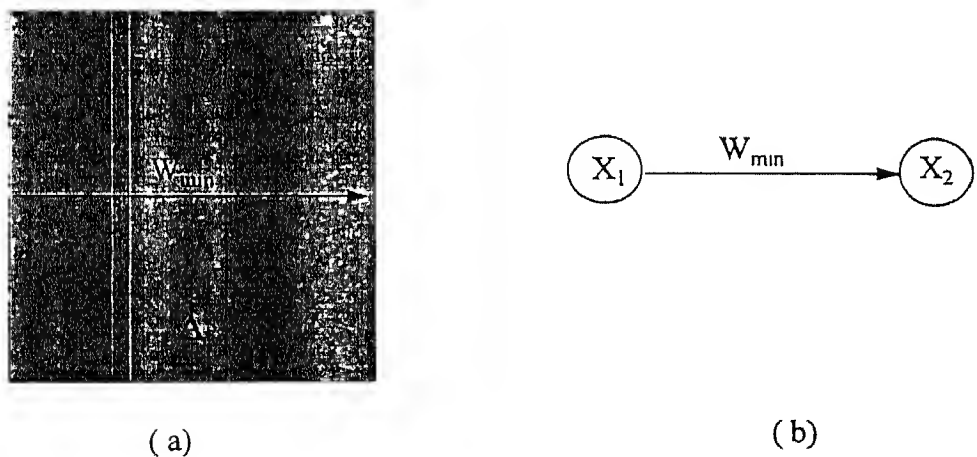


Figure 7 Illustrating the minimum width constraints Here W_{min} is the minimum required width of the primitive A

Some examples of constraint graph are shown in Figure 6 and Figure 7. In Figure 6, two primitives A and B are required to be spaced by a distance of at least W_{AB} units. Figure 6(b) shows the constraint graph. Here the cost value is set zero. In Figure 7, for a primitive A , its minimum width should be W_{min} units and the layer cost is C units. This is represented in graph domain as shown in Figure 7(b).

2.2 Minimum Width Type Constraint Generation

In this section, we describe the algorithms to generate constraints that relate to the minimum required width of an entity. This is dependent on the type of the layer associated with the entity. The minimum required widths for each layer type corresponding to certain fabrication process are given in [3]. In software implementation, this minimum width type of design rules are stored in a table whose individual entry has three fields:

- *Layer*: Specifies the characteristic layer for the mask polygon.
- *W_{min}* : Specifies the minimum required width for that layer.
- *Cost*: Specifies the sheet resistance of the layer.

In this section, we will describe the algorithms to impose the minimum width type constraints to the layout and to add those constraints to the constraint graphs G_H and G_V . Following procedures find the minimum width and the sheet resistance of a particular layer.

Procedure Min_Width (Layer)

Begin

Curr_entry = first entry of the min_width design rule table,

While (All entries not searched) do

Begin

```

    If (Curr_entry → layer = Layer) return (Curr_entry → Wmin),
    Curr_entry = next entry of the min_width design rule table
End while
End

```

Procedure Min_Width (Layer)

```

Begin
    Curr_entry = first entry of the min_width design rule table
    While ( All entries not searched) do
        Begin
            If (Curr_entry → layer = Layer) return (Curr_entry → Cost)
            Curr_entry = next entry of the min_width design rule table
        End while
    End
End

```

2.2.1 The Scanline Algorithm

To add the minimum width type constraints we take one primitive at a time. Depending upon its layer we determine the required minimum width as per the procedure *Min_Width()*. Then we detect the edge pairs of the primitive which are to be related by a width constraint. Detecting all edge pairs involves running a scan line through the primitive in a direction perpendicular to the direction of constraints. e.g. horizontal scanline running in vertical (Y) direction for adding horizontal width constraints and vertical scanline running in horizontal direction to add vertical width constraints. The following is an illustration of the scanline technique to detect all edge pairs which are to be constrained horizontally.

A scanline XX is run in $+Y$ direction in the layout plane. An edge of the polygon is inserted to the scanline when its bottom end point is encountered and deleted from the scanline when its top end point is encountered. After inserting all edges that corresponds to a particular position (Y coordinate) of the scanline, adjacent edge pairs are checked to find out whether the edge pairs are exactly to be constrained. If any arbitrary point intermediate to two adjacent points on the scanline remains within the polygon, then the corresponding two edges represent the opposite edge pairs of some portions of the polygon and hence have to be constrained.

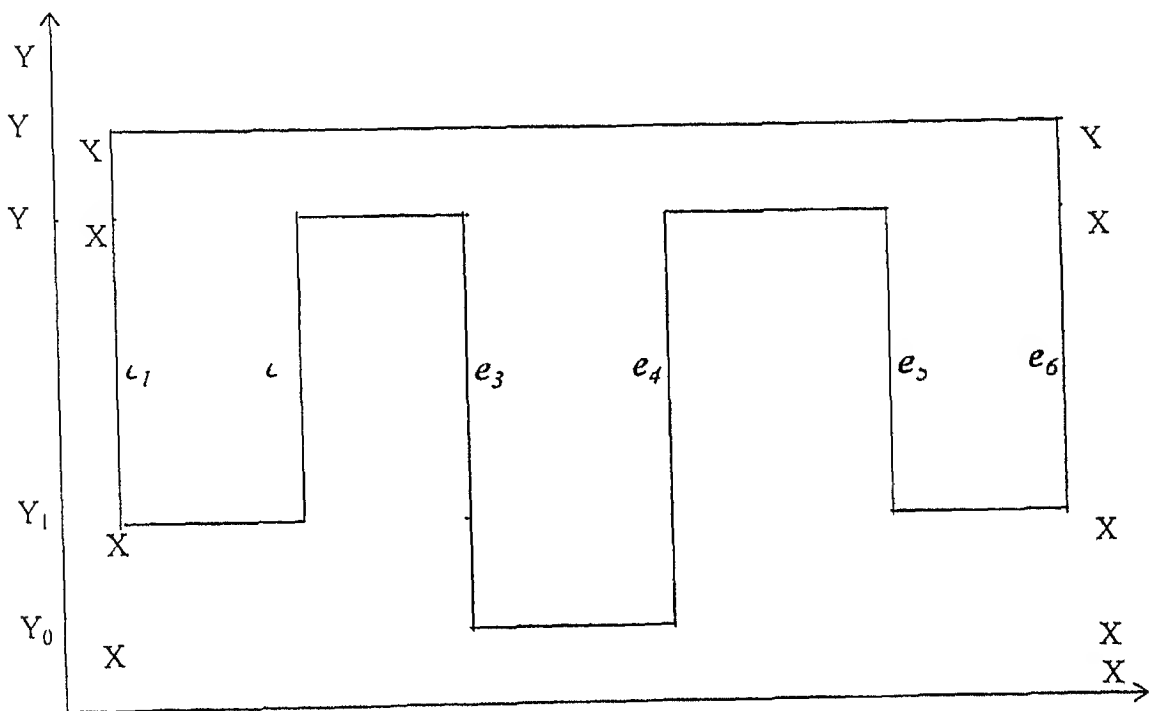


Figure 8 Illustrating the scanline technique for generating minimum width type constraints

In Figure 8 a primitive A is shown which is to be constrained through the size rules in horizontal direction. A horizontal scanline $X'X$ is run from the bottom to the top of the polygon. Its positions at distinct instances are shown. At position Y_0 , the edges e_3 and e_4 are inserted to the scan line. It is found that these two edges enclose

certain portions of the polygon in horizontal direction which means that these two edges are actually to be constrained by the width constraints and hence a width constraint is joined between edges e_3 and e_4 . Then the scanline is moved to the position Y_1 where it encounters the bottom end points of the edges e_1 , e_5 and e_6 . The edges e_1 , e_5 , and e_6 are inserted to the scanline. Adjacent edge pairs e_1 and e_5 , and e_5 and e_6 are constrained as they enclose some portions of the polygon. However the adjacent edge pairs e_1 and e_6 are actually not to be constrained. We take this decision by predicting a point intermediate to e_1 and e_6 and checking whether that point remains within the polygon. If it lies within the polygon then the edge pairs are actually to be constrained by width constraint. At position Y_2 the bottom end points of edges e_2 , e_3 , e_4 and e_5 are encountered by the scanline hence e_2 and e_3 are deleted from the scanline. Similarly at position Y_3 the edges e_1 and e_6 are deleted from the scanline. Figure 9 shows the constraint graph generated by this algorithm. A formal description of our algorithm to generate size constraints in both horizontal and vertical direction corresponding to a layout entity is given below.

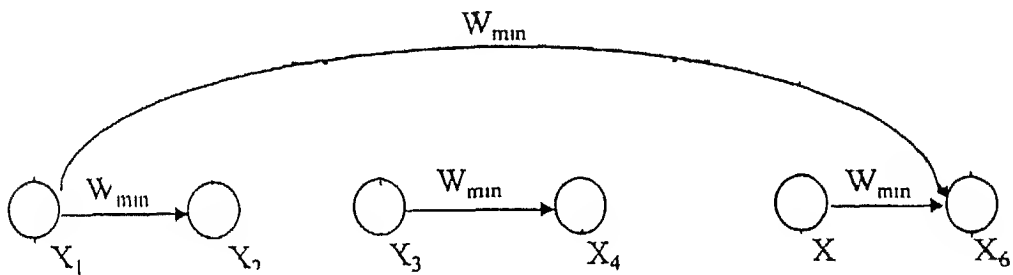


Figure 9 The constraint graph showing *Min_Width Constraints* only as generated by *scanline* technique

Procedure Add_Min_Width_Constraints_to (entity)

Begin

W_{min} = Minimum width of layer corresponding to entity,

if (entity \rightarrow type = box)

Begin

Find opposite edge pairs of the box. Join the constraints of weight W_{min} between the corresponding nodes in the constraint graph

return

End if

if (entity \rightarrow type = polygon)

Begin

Step 1 Create an array $H[]$ whose elements are the end points of the horizontal and inclined lines. Similarly create an array $V[]$ whose elements are the end points of vertical and inclined lines

Step2 Sort the elements of $H[]$ array according to the following strategies

- *Take X coordinates of the points as primary key. A point having lower X coordinate value has higher priority of being scanned early*
- *Amongst the points with equal X coordinates, those representing right end points have higher priority of being scanned early. (This ensures that at a particular position of the scanline the deletion of edges has higher priority than the insertion of edges)*
- *Sort the group of points that have the same X coordinates and all points representing the left end points in increasing order of Y coordinates*

Step 3 Sort the elements of $V[]$ array according to the following strategies

- *Sort the points in increasing order of Y coordinates*

- Amongst the points with equal Y coordinates the top end points have higher priority than the bottom end points
- Sort the group of points with equal Y coordinates, and all representing the bottom end points in increasing order of X coordinates

Step 4 Maintain an array $V_sc[]$ that represents a vertical scanline. The elements of V_sc represent the points that are currently on the scanline

Step 5 Run the scan line $V_sc[]$ from left to right. From $H[]$ array select a group of points that have equal X coordinates

Label 5.1 for (each point \in group)

Begin

if (point = left end point)

Begin

Insert that point in the scanline $V_sc[]$ at proper position such that the elements of $V_sc[]$ are always in the y -sorted order

End if

else replace the corresponding left end point by the current right end point

End for

step 6 Between every pair of end points $P1, P2 \in V_sc[]$ such that $(P1, P2, W_{min})$ represents a valid width constraint, join a constraint of weight equal to the minimum width of the corresponding layer. Delete all right end points from the scanline $V_sc[]$

if (all groups are not selected) select next group and goto Label 5.1

Step 7 Maintain an array $H_sc[]$ that represents a horizontal scanline. The elements of H_sc represent the points that are currently on the scanline

Step 8 Run the scan line $H_sc[]$ from bottom to the top From $H[]$ array select a group of points that have equal Y coordinates

Label 8 1 for (each point \in group)

Begin

if (point = bottom end point)

Begin

Insert that point in the scanline $H_sc[]$ at proper position, such that the elements of $H_sc[]$ are always in the x_sorted order

End if

else replace the corresponding bottom end point by the current top end point

End for

Step 9 Between every pair of end points $P1, P2 \in H_sc[]$ such that $(P1 \ P2 \ W_{min})$ represents a valid width constraint join a constraint of weight equal to the minimum width of the corresponding layer Delete all top end points from the scanline $H_sc[]$

if (all groups are not selected) select next group and goto Label 8 1

End

2.3 Spacing Constraint Generation

The generation of spacing constraints is a very time consuming process in mask layout compaction based on constraint graph approach. In worst case there are $O(N^2)$ constraints where N is the no of primitives in the layout. One way to limit the number of constraints is not to generate redundant constraints. Shadow propagation is one traditional approach to generate the spacing constraints where *X visibility* and *Y visibility* are checked to determine whether two edges of layout entities are to be constrained by the spacing constraints. Two primitives are said to be *X visible* if a horizontal line extended from one primitive in $+X$ direction meets the other without passing through any extra primitive. Synonymously *Y visibility* can be defined. Concept of *X visibility* is shown in Figure 10. Here the primitive *B* is *X visible* from the primitive *A* while primitive *C* and *D* are not.

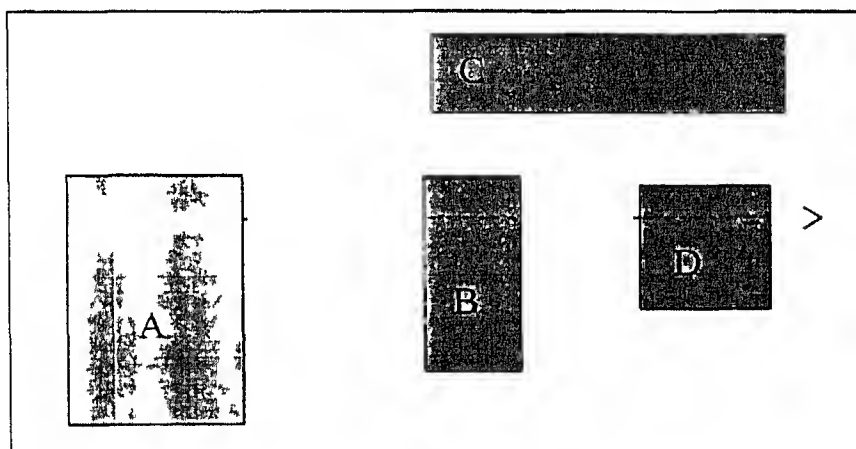


Figure 10 Illustrating the concept of visibility. Here *B* is *X visible* from *A* while *C* and *D* are not.

The constraint generation method used should ideally generate an irredundant set of constraints since the cost of solving the constraint graph is proportional to the number of edges of the constraint graph. In practice we must trade increased constraint generation time to generate the smaller constraint set for smaller solving time.

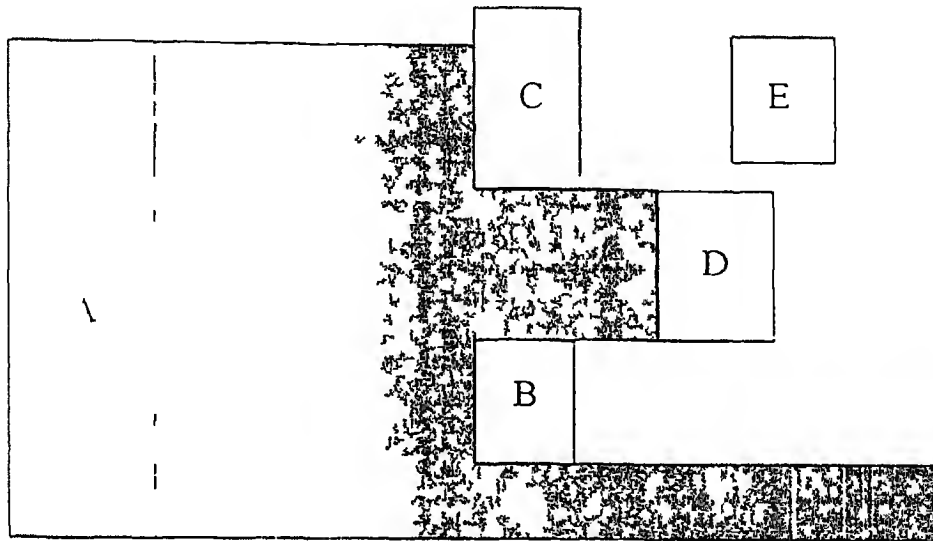


Figure 11 Illustrating *Shadowing* using *X Visibility*

The shadow propagation algorithm examines the positions of the cells to determine what constraints are redundant. Referring to Figure 11 we can imagine a region that contains the rectangles that must be constrained against primitive *A* in horizontal direction is falling under a shadow cast from *A*. If the shadow falls on a rectangle that rectangle must be constrained against *A*. Hence we must generate constraints from *A* to *B*, *C* and *D*. We need not generate a constraint from *A* to *E* as *E* does not fall in the shadow of *A*. However *E* is indirectly being constrained against *A* through the entity *C* as *E* falls under shadow of *C* which is in the shadow of *A*.

The above mentioned method is good enough for generating a irredundant set of constraints but the only problem with this approach is that it produces an under

estimated set of constraints. The diagonally interactive entities cannot be constrained by this approach, hence this cannot prevent two initially non overlapping primitives from overlapping each other in new technologies. Figure 12 is an illustration of this fact.

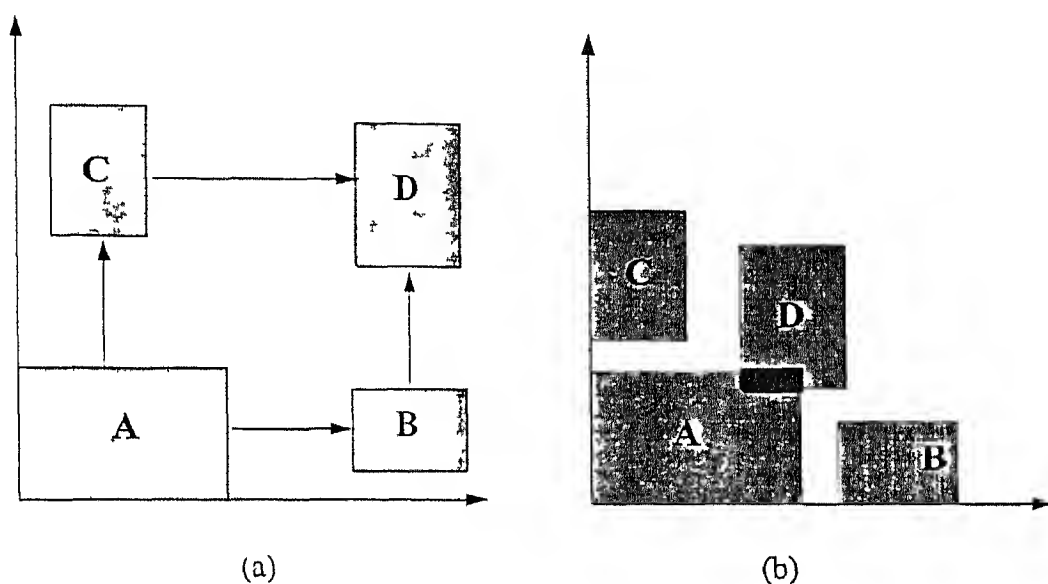


Figure 12 Illustrating the shortcomings of shadowing using X-visibility (a) initial configuration before compaction (b) final configuration after compaction

In Figure 12(a) the initial layout with all its rectangles spaced from each other is shown. The arrow represents the vertical and horizontal spacing constraints between the various rectangles as generated by conventional shadow propagation algorithm. The rectangles *A* and *D* are initially non overlapping. However if the layout is compacted as there is not any constraint between *A* and *D* these two primitives cannot be prevented from being overlapped as shown in Figure 12(b). To ensure the spacing relations in diagonal direction we modify the definition of *shadow* and redefine it by casting a shadow at an angle of 45° as shown in Figure 13(a). Shadowing in diagonal direction ensures that the primitives in diagonal direction, e.g. *A* and *D* are constrained and when the layout is compacted the topology can be preserved. The basic idea of not generating redundant constraints is as follows:

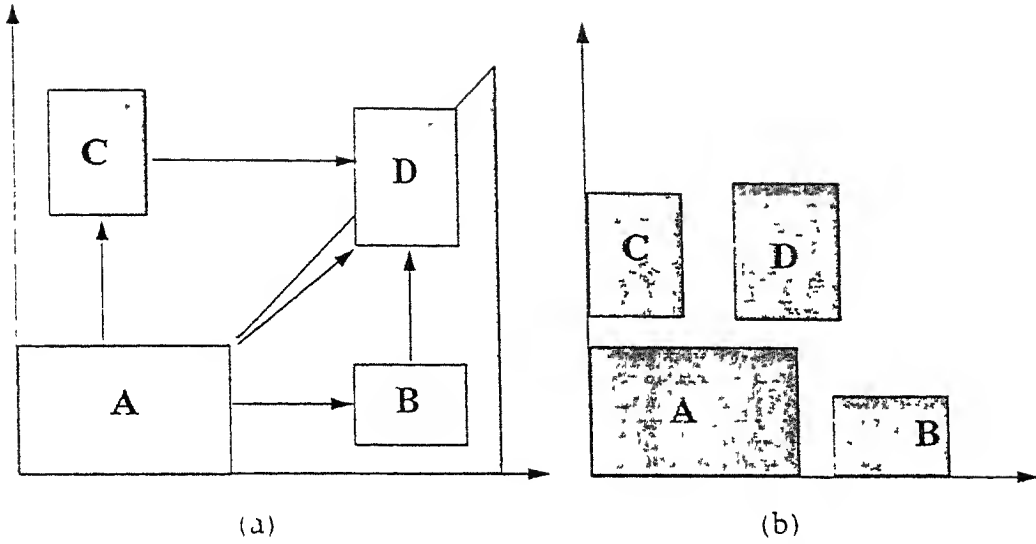


Figure 13 (a) Illustrating concept of *diagonal shadowing* Here *A* and *D* are constrained (b) The layout after compaction Since *A* and *D* are constrained, they will not overlap

If a primitive *C* lies in the shadow of another primitive *B* which is also in the shadow of the primitive *A* then a spacing constraint from *A* to *C* is redundant even if *C* remains in the shadow of *A*. However this statement holds good, if the layout is made up of boxes only. In practice the basic layout primitives are not only boxes, but also the polygons. The difficulty with the polygons as basic layout entities is illustrated in Figure 14. Here *B* and *C* are in *shadow* of *A* and *C* is in the *shadow* of *B* however the constraint ($A \rightarrow C$) is not a redundant one, and actual redundant constraint is ($B \rightarrow C$). Further in the cases of rectangles, if there is a spacing constraint from primitive *A* to primitive *C*, there cannot be a spacing constraint from *C* to *A*, which is not valid in actual cases with polygons and boxes as the basic layout primitives. In Figure 14, both the primitives *A* and *C* are related in both ways. Keeping all these aspects in view we propose and validate an algorithm, that does not generate any redundant spacing constraint. Instead of shadow being defined by the primitives, we define shadow from every right edge of the primitive while

constraining in horizontal direction and from the every top edge of the primitive while constraining in vertical direction. Thus we need the following definitions

Shadow. An edge e_2 is said to be in the *shadow* of another edge e_1 if it (e_2) is *diagonally visible* from e_1

Front. An edge e_2 is said to be in *front* of another edge e_1 , in horizontal direction if the following conditions are satisfied

- Both e_1 and e_2 belong to the same primitive
- Edge e_2 is *X visible* from the edge e_1

Left Edge. An edge e_i of polygon P is said to be a *left edge*, if the left side of e_i is vacant and *right side* of edge e_i is filled to an extent, at least the minimum resolution of the layout. Referring to Figure 15(a), the edge $e_i \in P$ can be called a *left edge* of P

Right Edge. An edge e_i of polygon P is said to be a *right edge* if the *right side* of the edge is vacant and the *left side* is filled to an extent at least the minimum resolution of the layout. In Figure 15(a) the edges e_{j1} , e_{j2} , e_{j3} are the *right edges* of the polygon P

The concept of *shadow* and *front* is illustrated in Figure 15. In Figure 15 (a), the edges e_i , e_{j1} , e_{j2} and e_{j3} belong to the same primitive and e_{j1} , e_{j2} and e_{j3} are *X visible* from e_i . Thus e_{j1} , e_{j2} , and e_{j3} are said to be in *front* of e_i . According to the above strategies, in Figure 15(b) edge e_{i2} is in *front* of edge e_{i1} , e_{j2} and e_{j3} are in front of edge e_{j1} , and e_{i4} is in *front* of e_{i3} . The edges e_{j1} is *diagonally visible* from the edge e_{i2} . So edge e_{j1} can be said to be in the *shadow* of e_{i2} . Similarly e_{i3} is in the *shadow* of e_{i2} and e_{j2} . Synonymously *top edge* and *bottom edge* can be defined to consider shadow in the vertical direction

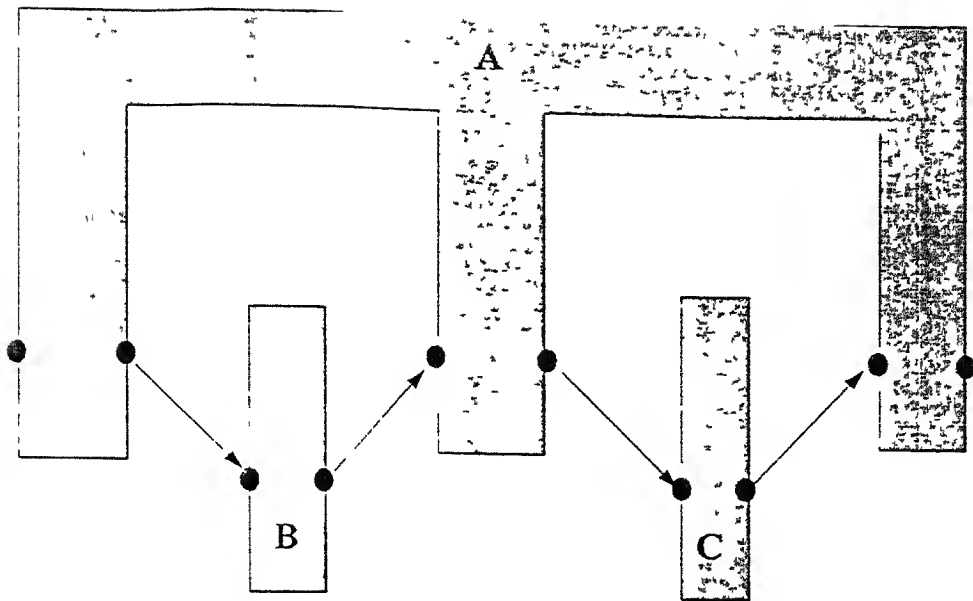


Figure 14 Illustrating the complete set of irredundant spacing constraint that has to be generated for the primitives A , B , and C

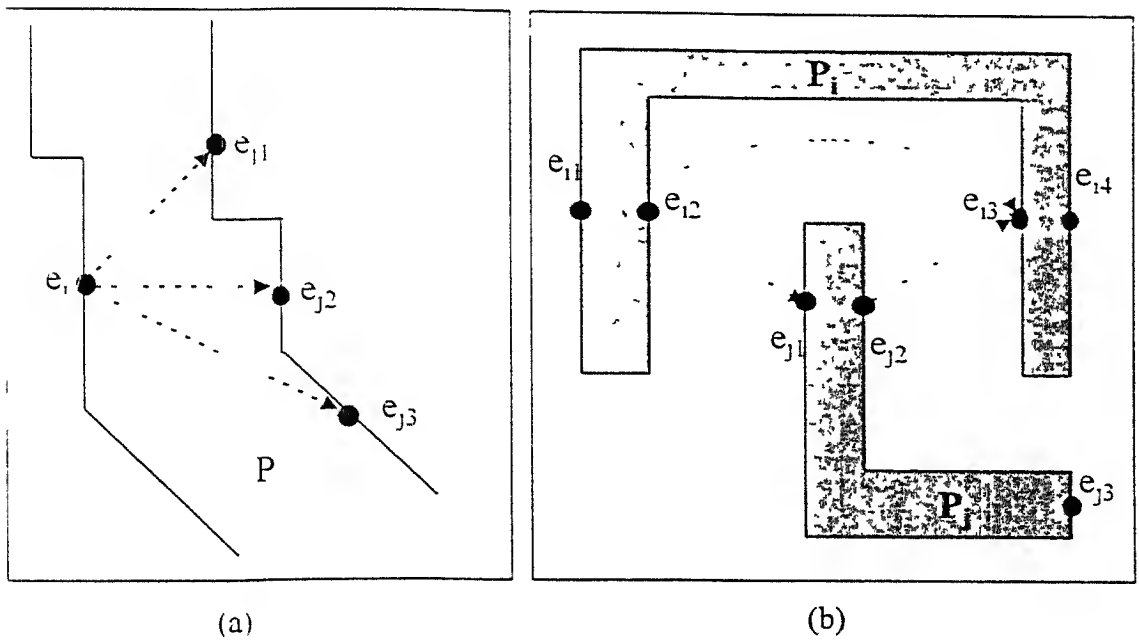


Figure 15 Illustrating the concept of *Shadow* and *Front* (a) Arrow shows *Front* relation (b) Arrow shows the *Shadow* relation

2.3.1 Checking for Left and Right Edge

The concepts of left and right edges of an entity are defined earlier. To determine whether an edge $e_i \in P_i$ is a *left edge* of a primitive, we have to predict a point to the left or right of the edge and check whether that point belongs to the polygon. Two subcases are described below. Here we predict a point $P(x,y)$ to the right of the edge e_i , and use point enclosure algorithm to check whether this point is inside of the polygon P .

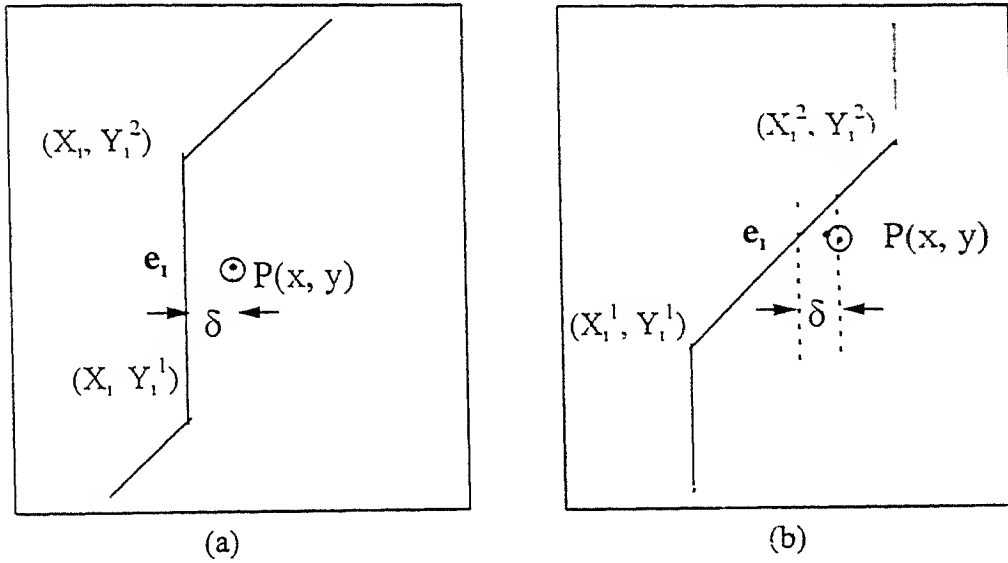


Figure 16 Check for *left* and *right* edge of a primitive (a) case of a vertical edge, (b) case of an inclined edge

CASE A: e_i is a vertical edge :

Let $P(x,y)$ be a test point sufficiently close to the edge e_i towards its right as shown in Figure 16 (a). The coordinates of the point be

$$X = X_i + \delta$$

$$Y = (Y_i^1 + Y_i^2) / 2.$$

where δ is a small real number, smaller than the minimum resolution of the layout

If the test point $P(x,y)$ remains inside the polygon, then the edge e_i must be a *left edge* of the polygon, otherwise it is a *right edge*.

CASE B. e_i is an inclined edge:

This case is shown in Figure 16(b). In this case the coordinates of the test point $P(x,y)$ will be

$$X = (X_i^1 + X_i^2) / 2 + \delta,$$

$$Y = (Y_i^1 + Y_i^2) / 2.$$

If the test point is inside the polygon, then e_i is a *left edge*, otherwise it is a *right edge*.

2.3 2 Checking for Front

The concept of *front* has been defined earlier. Here a method to check whether an edge e_j is in *front* of another edge e_i is described. Before the edges are checked for being *front*, the minimum width type constraints are generated. All edges e_j that remains in *front* of e_i are constrained by e_i . Thus checking for front can be achieved by simply checking for adjacency between the corresponding nodes in the current constraint graph. An outline of the procedure *Front()* is given below.

Procedure *Front*(e_i, e_j)

Begin:

$e_i \in P_i$ and $e_j \in P_j$;

v_i = the node in constraint graph corresponding to edge e_i ;

v_j = the node in constraint graph corresponding to edge e_j ;

if ($P_i \neq P_j$) return (FALSE) ;

if (!Adjacent(v_i, v_j)) return (FALSE) ;

return (TRUE);

End;

2.3.3 Checking for Diagonal Visibility

The range of the coordinates in XY plane for which an edge e_j is said to be *diagonally visible* from another edge e_i is decided by the orientation of the edge in the layout plane. Here we will consider only the construction of horizontal constraints and hence, we will restrict ourselves discussing the diagonal visibility in horizontal and diagonal direction only. Hence we limit the orientation of an edge to be either vertical or inclined only. For different orientation of edges e_i and e_j , the limits of diagonal visibility is described below. In all cases we presume e_i to be a *right edge* and e_j to be a *left edge*.

CASE 1. Both e_i and e_j are vertical lines:

Figure 17(a) shows a general case when e_j is *diagonally visible* from e_i . Figures 17(b) and (c) show the two extreme limits for diagonal visibility. We define two variables Y_{high} and Y_{low} that define the two extreme limits for the pair (e_i, e_j) of edges. Y_{high} and Y_{low} are determined to be

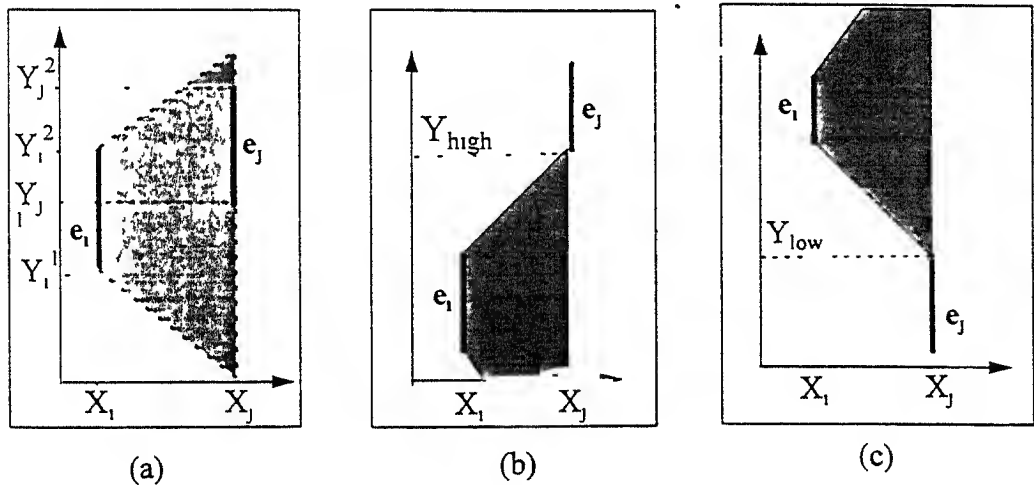


Figure 17 Illustrating the *diagonal visibility* Case of both vertical edges

$$Y_{high} = Y_i^2 + (X_j - X_i)$$

$$Y_{low} = Y_i^1 - (X_j - X_i)$$

where Y_i^2 is the Y coordinate of the top end point of edge e_i and Y_i^1 is the Y coordinate of bottom end point of the edge e_i . Similarly Y_j^1 and Y_j^2 are defined. If $Y_j^1 > Y_{high}$ or $Y_j^2 < Y_{low}$ then e_j does not remain in the *shadow* of e_i or e_j is not *diagonally visible* from e_i .

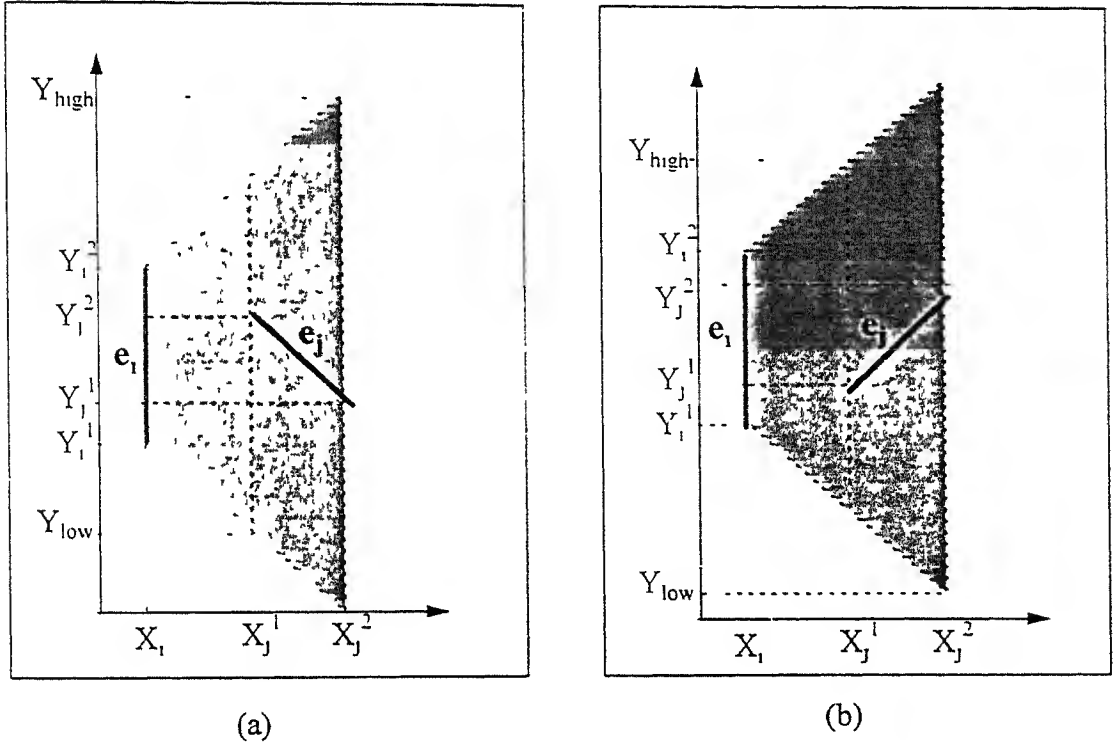


Figure 18 Illustrating *diagonal visibility*, Case of e_j being an inclined edge

CASE2 : e_i is vertical and e_j is inclined line:

The two sub cases for this type orientation are shown in Figures 18(a) and (b). Let X_i be the X coordinate of the lower end point of e_i and X_j be the X coordinate of upper end point of e_j . For both the sub cases the extreme values of the Y coordinates are also shown in Figures 18(a) and (b). Y_{high} and Y_{low} take the values:

$$Y_{high} = Y_i^2 + (X_i - X_i)$$

$$Y_{low} = Y_i^1 - (X_j - X_i)$$

If $Y_j^1 > Y_{high}$ or $Y_j^2 < Y_{low}$, then e_j is not *diagonally visible* from e_i , else e_j remains in the *shadow* of e_i .

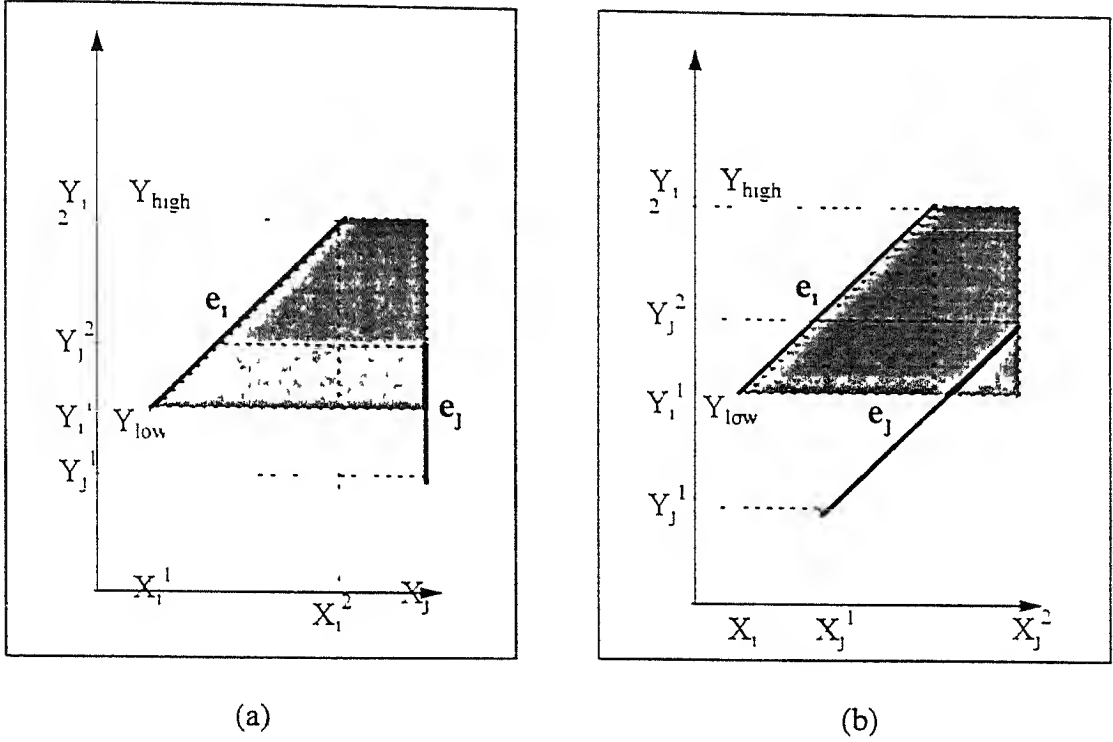


Figure 19 Illustrating *diagonal visibility* Case of e_i being an inclined edge.

CASE 3: e_i is inclined line, e_j may be vertical or inclined line:

This case is shown in Figure 19. In this case, for simplicity, we restrict the definition of *diagonal visibility*, and define the shadow considering only the horizontal visibility. We obtain the limits as

$$Y_{high} = Y_i^2 \text{ and}$$

$$Y_{low} = Y_i^1$$

2.3.4 Checking the Shadow

Using the above concepts of *left edge* and *right edge*, and the *diagonal visibility* we can formally define the *shadow* as follows

Shadow An edge e_j is said to be in the *shadow* of another edge e_i if .

- $e_i \in P_i$ and e_i is a *right edge* of P_i
- $e_j \in P_j$, and e_j is a *left edge* of P_j
- e_j is *diagonally visible* from e_i

A formal algorithm to check the *shadow* is outlined below

Procedure H_Shadow (e_i, e_j)

Begin:

If (e_j lies to the left of e_i) *return*(FALSE);

If (e_j is a right edge) *return* (FALSE);

If (e_i is a left edge) *return* (FALSE);

Y_{high} = Upper limit of shadow region in Y direction for the pair of edges $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle$.

Y_{low} = Lower limit of shadow region in Y direction for the pair of edges $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle$.

If (Y_{bottom} of $e_j > Y_{high}$) *return* (FALSE);

If (Y_{top} of $e_j < Y_{low}$) *return* (FALSE);

return (TRUE);

End;

2.3 5 Generating the Spacing Constraints

For generating the spacing constraints, we propose a method analogous to *depth first traversal* in a *directed acyclic graph* [13],[14],[15]. The edges of primitives of the layout resemble the nodes in the *DAG*, and we traverse along the

primitive edges one by one depending on the *front* and the *shadow* criteria as the DAG is traversed from one node to the other along its arcs. The algorithm starts from a *source vertex* (*S*) that represents the left boundary of the layout and visits every edge before stopping. The algorithm is cited below.

Procedure Generate_H_Space_Constraints(G_H)

Begin:

Step1: Create two arrays of edge listing called Left[] array and Right[] array.

(a) Left array contains all the edges that represent a left edge of a primitive and the right side boundary of the layout (T), i.e. the elements of Left[] array can be the destination vertex of a spacing constraint.

(b) Similarly the Right[] array contains all the edges that represent a right edge of a primitive and the left side boundary (S) of the layout, i.e., the elements of Right[] can be the source vertex of a spacing constraint.

(c) Sort both Left[] and Right[] arrays according to the following strategies:

- Sort the elements in increasing order of X coordinates.*
- For a set of elements with equal X coordinates, sort in increasing order of Y_{bottom} .*
- The first element of Left[] array is the edge corresponding to the left boundary (S).*
- The first element of Right[] array is the edge corresponding to the right boundary.*

Step 2: Create an array Visited[] that maintains the visit status of an edge. Initialize all of its elements to FALSE. Visited[0] to Visited[no_of_left_edges - 1] are attributed for keeping the visit status of edges in Left[] array, and Visited[no_of_left_edges] to Visited[no_of_left_edges + no_of_right_edges] keep the visit status of the edges in the Right[] array.

Step 3: root = S;


```

for (each edge  $e_i \in \text{Left}[ ]$ )
  Begin:
    if ( $\neg \text{Visited}(e_i)$ )  $H\_Traverse(\text{root}, e_i)$  ;
  End for;
End;

```

Here $H_Traverse()$ recursive routine for traversing the edge listings, and other procedures such as $\text{Min_space}()$ and $\text{Descendant_Visited}()$ are outlined below

Procedure $H_Traverse(p, q)$

```

Begin:
  If ( $q$  is a left edge)
    Begin:
       $\text{Visited}(q) = \text{TRUE}$ ;
       $\text{Min\_space} = \text{Minimum required spacing between edges } p \text{ and } q$ ;
      If ( $p$  and  $q$  fall in interactive layers) join constraint from  $p$  to  $q$  of value
        equals to  $\text{Min\_space}$ ;
      for (each edge  $e_j$  in front of node  $q$ )  $H\_Traverse(q, e_j)$  ;
    End if;
  else If ( $q$  is a right edge)
    Begin:
       $\text{Visited}(q) = \text{TRUE}$ ;
      for (each edge  $e_k \in \text{Left}[ ] \mid e_k$  is in shadow of  $q$ )
        Begin:
          If ( $\neg \text{Visited}(e_k)$ )  $H\_Traverse(q, e_k)$  ;
          else if ( $\text{Visited}(e_k)$  and  $e_k$  is not visited by any descendant of  $q$ )
            Join spacing constraint from  $q$  to  $e_k$  of weight equals to the
              minimum spacing between  $q$  and  $e_k$ 
          End for;
        End if;
      End for;
    End if;
  End if;
End;

```

End;

Procedure Min_Space(p,q)

Begin

Curr_entry = first entry of design rule table of spacing rules;

while(all entries are not searches)

Begin:

If ((Curr_entry \rightarrow layer1 = p \rightarrow layer) and

(Curr_entry \rightarrow layer2 = q \rightarrow layer))

return (Curr_entry \rightarrow Spacing_value) ;

Curr_entry = next entry of the design rule table.

End while;

return(-1)

(-1 corresponds to non interactive layer)

End;

Procedure Descendant_Visited (p,q)

(Returns true if node p is visited from any of the descendant of node q)

Begin :

If (Adjacent (p,q)) return(TRUE);

for (each node n, adjacent to p)

if (Descendant_Visited(n,q)) return(TRUE);

return(FALSE);

End;

2.4 Generation of Overlap/Extension Constraints

Overlap constraints abstract the overlap/extension layout rules. These rules are imposed to preserve the interconnection among the layout elements in different layers/levels. Various overlap/extension rules have been described in an earlier section on design rule description. In this section we will describe the various algorithms that have been developed as a part of this thesis work to generate these constraints. A basic scanline approach is employed to detect the overlap among the layout primitives. Special care is taken to generate constraints corresponding to the contacts and vias. The following is an illustration of the scanline approach for generating overlap/extension constraint.

For generating overlap extension constraints in horizontal direction, i.e. to construct G_H , a horizontal scanline is run in the vertical direction on the layout plane. The flattened layout plane information is stored in a common data base, e.g., an array containing the vertical edge listings. This array is sorted according to a certain strategy such that when the scanline is run, at any instant (or position of the scanline) some selected pairs of edges will generate overlap constraint. Whenever a bottom end point is encountered, that edge is inserted to the scanline and when a top end point is encountered, the corresponding edge is deleted from the scanline. The number of distinct steps or positions that a scanline can take is equal to the number of distinct Y -values of the end points. At a particular position of the scanline an edge can be inserted or deleted and the deletion takes higher priority than the insertion. From among a set of edges falling on the scanline, a valid overlap is checked according to the following strategies. For a particular position of the scanline, let e_i and e_j be the two edges cut by the scanline. The various conditions under which an overlap constraint between e_i and e_j is generated are

- If the edges are not previously constrained. If these are previously constrained, then it is either by *minimum width* type constraint which implies both e_i and e_j are the edges of the same primitive (polygon or box) or it is by a *spacing* constraint which implies these edges should be spaced
- If there exists a valid design rule which specifies the required overlap between the layout elements. For example in Figure 20, the overlap between e_{i1} and e_{j1} is valid while the overlap between e_{i1} and e_{j2} is not valid as there is no such design rule (*CM* to *CC*)
- If $e_i \in P_i$ and $e_j \in P_j$, P_i and P_j are different primitives and $P_i \cap P_j \neq \phi$, e.g., for an overlap constraint to be generated between two edges, the corresponding primitives must overlap, i.e. one primitive may be completely embedded within the other

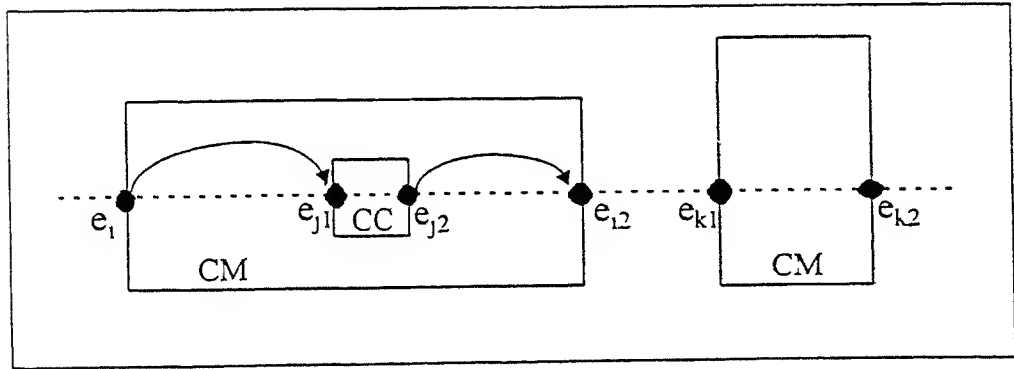


Figure 20 Illustrating existence of valid overlap rule

So at a particular position of the scanline we select all the edge pairs satisfying the above criteria and constrain them. The most vital problem that can arise with this approach is the case of contacts and vias as described below:

In Figure 21(a), a contact CC and a metal layer CM is shown. If the scanline approach is used, in this case the following constraints will be generated.

$$e_{m8} \rightarrow e_{c1} \text{ and } e_{c3} \rightarrow e_{m4} \text{ in } G_H \text{ and}$$

$$e_{m5} \rightarrow e_{c4} \text{ and } e_{c2} \rightarrow e_{m3} \text{ in } G_V$$

After the corresponding LP problem is solved, the contact position in the resultant layout will be as shown in Figure 21 (b). At this position it will violate the design rule between e_{c2} and e_{m1} and between e_{m6} and e_{c8} as there is no such constraint between this pair of edges originally generated

One way to eliminate this problem is to generate constraint between e_{m1} and e_{c2} and between e_{m6} and e_{c4} . However with these constraints the wire width will be unnecessarily wider. Instead if we generate constraints $(e_{m2} \rightarrow e_{c2})$ and $(e_{m6} \rightarrow e_{c4})$ we prevent the contact position being shifted into the active wire, hence can set the wire width to its minimum width. However these constraints cannot be captured by the conventional scanline approach since the edge e_{m6} leaves the scanline before e_{c1} enters and e_{c1} leaves the scanline before e_{m2} enters. So we treat the contacts and vias as a special case and generate the constraints pertinent to the contacts and vias prior to running the scanline

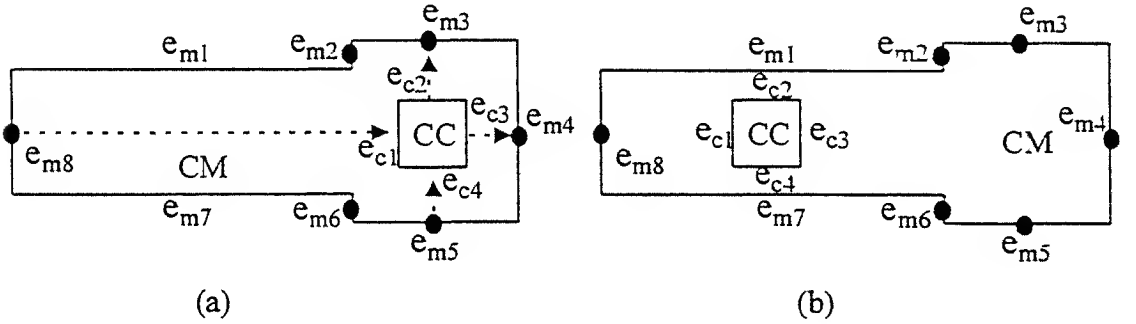


Figure 21 Illustrating shortcoming of scanline approach in generating constraints for contacts and vias (a) Initial contact position. (b) Finally contact is shifted into the wire, violating design rule.

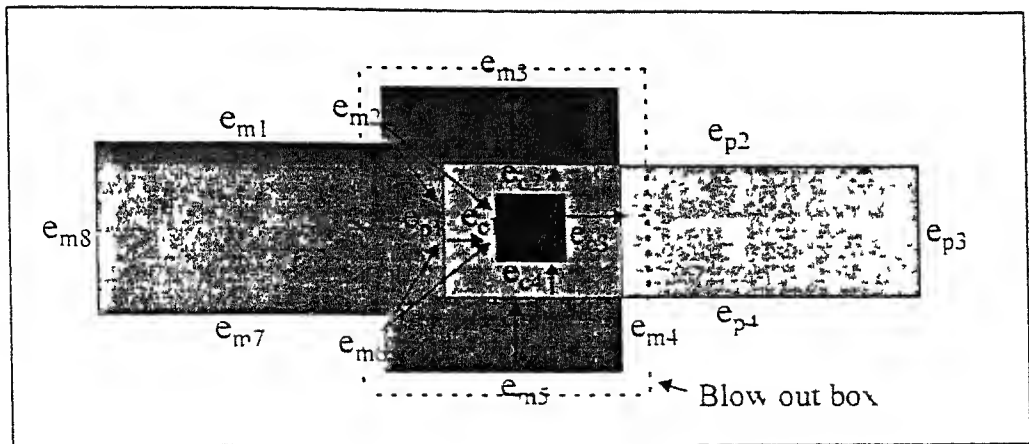


Figure 22 Illustrating constraint generation for contacts and vias *Blow out box* is shown in dotted line Edges which are constrained are shown by arrow

For adding the constraints pertinent to the contacts and vias, we take one contact or via at a time. We then determine the layout primitives which are actually connected by this contact. For example, we have to search for two *n_diffusion/p_diffusion/poly/metal1* polygons which enclose that contact. Similarly for a via we have to search a *metal1* polygon a *metal2* polygon which enclose that via. Once such a triplet, e.g. *CM-CC-CP*, is detected, we blow out a rectangular region of some arbitrary large length and width surrounding the contact/via. The dimensions of the *blow out region* depend upon the minimum required overlap between contact and the characteristic layer. This is illustrated in Figure 22 in which a *metal* wire and a *poly* wire are connected through a contact. The corresponding blow out box is shown in dotted line. All the edges that fall inside or intersect with the blow out box are taken into consideration for generating constraints. We can ensure constraints between $(e_{m6} \rightarrow e_{p2})$ and $(e_{m2} \rightarrow e_{p2})$ by this method.

2.4.1 The Algorithm

Procedure Generate_Overlap_Constraint ()

Begin

Step 1: Generate Constraints for contacts and vias;

Step 2: Create an array $H[]$ whose elements are the end points of all horizontal and inclined edges in the layout. Create an array $V[]$ whose elements are the end points of all the vertical and inclined edges in the layout.

Step 3 Sort the elements of $H[]$ array according to the following strategies:

- Primary key: increasing order of X coordinates.*
- Amongst a group of points with equal X coordinates those which represent right end points have higher priority.*
- Sort the group of left end points with equal X coordinates in increasing order of Y coordinates.*

Step 4: Sort the elements of $V[]$ array according to equivalent strategies

Step 5: Create an array $V_sc[]$ that represents a vertical scanline, whose elements correspond to the points that are currently on the scanline.

Step 6: Run the scanline from left to right.

Label 6.1: From $H[]$ array, select a group of points that have equal X coordinates.

for(each point belongs to Group)

Begin:

If(point = left end point) Insert that point in the scanline $V_sc[]$ at proper position, such that the elements of $V_sc[]$ are in the Y sorted order.

If(point = right end point) Delete the corresponding left end point from the scanline $V_sc[]$.

End for;

Step 7: for(every point $p_i \in V_sc[]$)

Begin:

for(every point $p_j \in H_sc[]$)

Begin:

e_i = the edge of the layout corresponding to p_i ;

e_j = the edge of the layout corresponding to p_j ;

v_i = vertex in G_V corresponding to e_i ;

v_j = vertex in G_V corresponding to e_j ;

P_i is the primitive containing e_i ;

P_j is the primitive containing e_j ;

If (! Adjacent(v_i, v_j))

If (Valid_Overlap(v_i, v_j))

If (Min_Overlap(v_i, v_j) $\neq 1$)

Join constraint between v_i and v_j of weight equals to Min_Overlap(v_i, v_j);

End for;

End for;

If (all groups are not selected) goto Label 6.1:

Step 8: Create an array $H_sc[]$ representing the horizontal scanline.

Step 9: Run the horizontal scanline from bottom to the top.

Label 9.1: From $V[]$ array, select a group of points with equal Y coordinates.

for(each point belongs to Group)

Begin:

If(point = bottom end point) Insert that point in the scanline $H_sc[]$ at proper position, such that the elements of $H_sc[]$ are in the X sorted order.

If(point = top end point) Delete the corresponding left end point from the scanline $H_sc[]$;

End for;

Step 10: for(every point $p_i \in H_sc[]$)

Begin:

for(every point $p_j \in H_sc[]$)

Begin:

e_i = the edge of the layout corresponding to p_i ;

e_j = the edge of the layout corresponding to p_j ;

v_i = vertex in G_H corresponding to e_i ;

v_j = vertex in G_H corresponding to e_j ;

P_i is the primitive containing e_i ;

P_j is the primitive containing e_j ;

If ($\neg \text{Adjacent}(v_i, v_j)$)

If ($\text{Valid_Overlap}(v_i, v_j)$)

If ($\text{Min_Overlap}(v_i, v_j) \neq 1$)

Join constraint between v_i and v_j of weight equals to

$\text{Min_Overlap}(v_i, v_j)$;

End for;

End for;

If (all groups are not selected) goto Label 9.1:

End;

The minimum overlap requirements between various layers are stored in a linked list. To find out the minimum overlap between two nodes, the list is searched to find a match of the layers. Following is an algorithm for the function $\text{Min_Overlap}()$.

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Procedure Min_Overlap(v_i, v_j)

Begin

layer1 = $v_i \rightarrow \text{layer_type}$;

layer2 = $v_j \rightarrow \text{layer_type}$;

If (both v_i and v_j are left edges) layer2 = -layer2;

else If (both v_i and v_j are right edge) layer1 = -layer2;

(In other two conditions, i.e., 1: v_i is left edge and v_j is a right edge then layer1 and layer2 will not be changed. 2: v_i is right edge and v_j left edge implies a spacing constraint and will not arise in this case.)

Search along the design rule list representing the overlap rules for a match of layer1 and layer2. If such a match found, return the corresponding overlap value of that entry.

If such a match not found return(-1).

End;

2.5 Transistor Resizing

Resizing of all the transistor present in the original layout can be achieved by two different ways. The first and easiest approach is to scale all the transistor uniformly setting new length at some user specified value and maintaining the same W/L ratio as the previous technology. The other approach is to scale the transistors according to user specified values. Although the first approach is simpler, the second approach provides the user more flexibility in manipulating transistor sizes for the new technology. We provide both the options. The various types of transistor configurations that our tool can support are as shown in Figure 23.

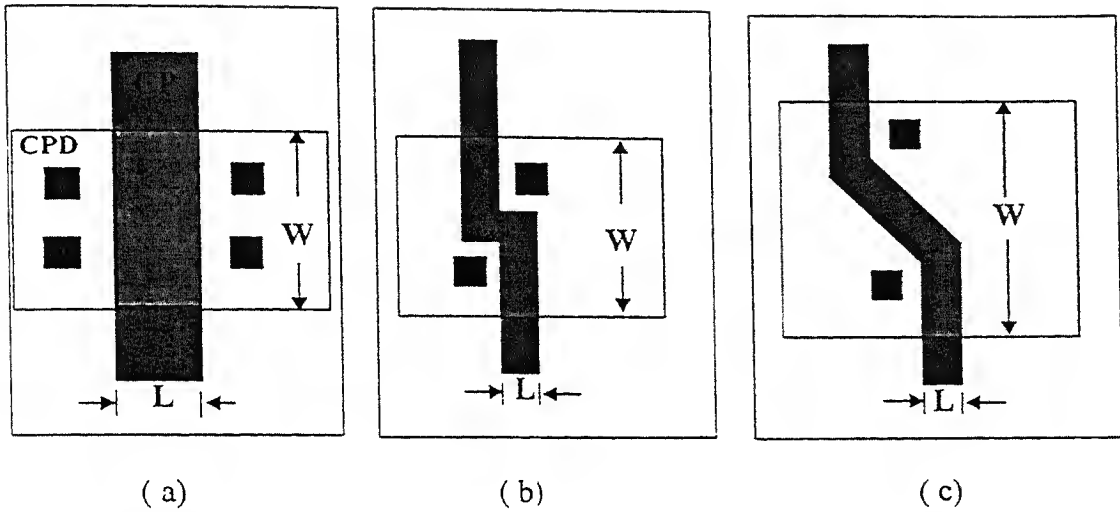


Figure 23 Illustrating various transistor configurations (a) Simple transistor (b) Rectilinear Transistor (c) Transistor with 45° inclined feature

The transistor resizing information are stored in a table whose elements are

- A point $P(x,y)$ in the layout plane, specifying the position of the transistor, to identify a particular transistor. This point corresponds to the S_W corner of the transistor
- W/L ratio for the transistor in old technology
- Required W/L ratio of the transistor in new technology

For constant W/L scaling the only information required from the user side is the minimum channel length of the transistor. The channel length and width will be set to a value determined by the W/L ratio of the transistor in old technology. For resizing the transistor according to new W/L , the first task is to detect all the edge pairs which have to be constrained. Figure 24 illustrates the various cases that may arise. In Figure 24(a), a simple transistor configuration is shown and the required constraint and its weights are shown. In Figures 24(b) and (c) the required constraints for other configurations are shown. We propose the following formal algorithm to resize the transistors

Procedure Resize_Transistor()

Begin:

for (each transistor in the layout)

Begin:

Step1: Find the diffusion polygon Pdiff and the poly polygon Ppoly defining the transistor using the point enclosure algorithm .

Step2: From the polygons Pdiff and Ppoly determine the relevant edges that define the actual transistor area.

Step3: Constrain the appropriate edge pairs according to the new W/L values, as shown in Figure 24.

End for;

End;

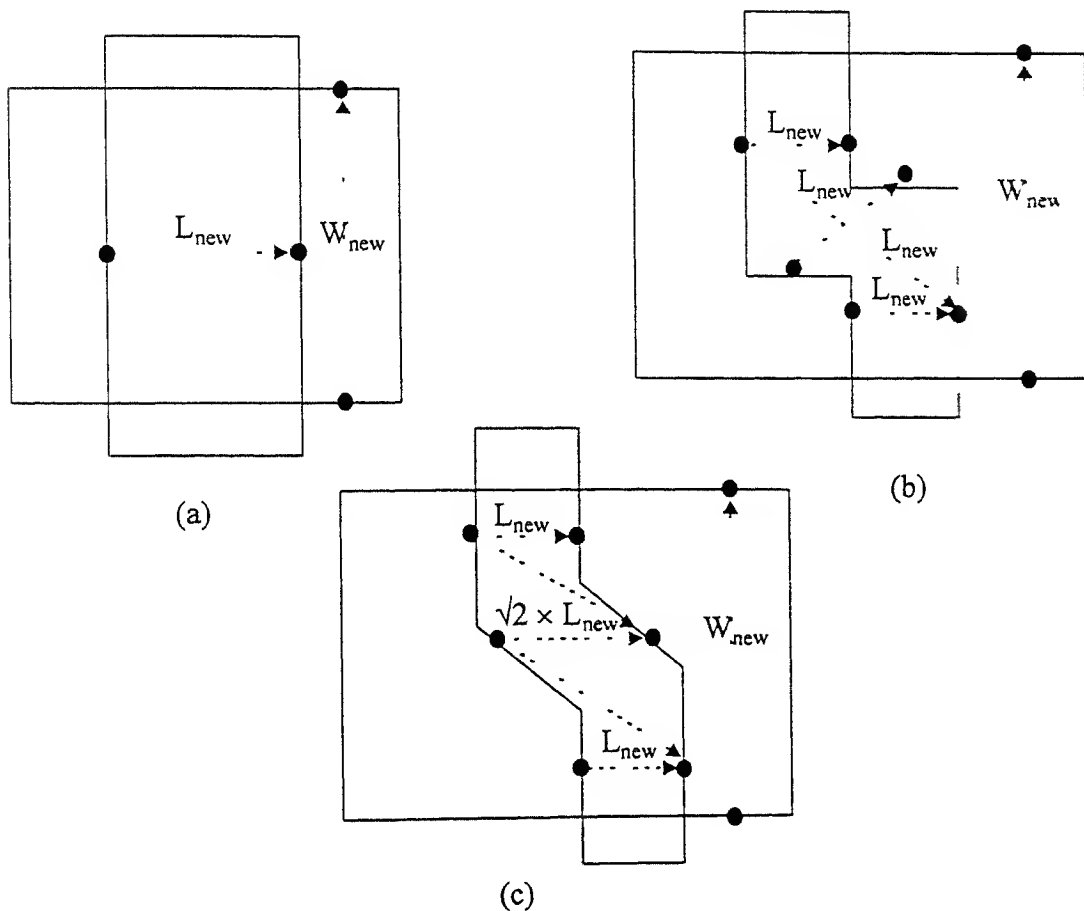


Figure 24 Showing the various required constraints for various transistor configurations

2.6 Other User Specified Layout Constraints

Although all the general types of constraints are discussed, there are still some user specified topological constraints, known as *user constraints (UC)*, which have to be imposed to provide some flexibility to the user in retargetting the cells. The various user constraints that our tool can support are

- Fixing power (V_{DD} and V_{SS}) bus width to a user specified value
- Fixing the connector positions in the layout
- Fixing the cell height

2.6.1 Fixing the Power Bus Width

For any layout the power (V_{DD} and V_{SS}) buses carry the maximum current, hence, these have to be kept wider than the other metal interconnection wires. Furthermore, in standard cell based design, the power buses being common to all the cells located in the same row have to be of a fixed width.

For fixing the V_{DD} and V_{SS} bus widths, these buses have to be identified at early stages. The connectors connecting the V_{DD} and V_{SS} buses are identified in input processing stage. This case can be considered as a special case of generating minimum width type constraints, hence can be taken care of at the stage of generating minimum width type constraints. In this case a primitive given as an input to the procedure *Add_Min_Width_Constraint* is first checked for its membership to the *metal1* layer and then is checked for its being a power bus from the information of the power bus connectors. If it is a power bus, the weight by which the various nodes corresponding to that entity are constrained is the minimum width of a power bus rather than the minimum width of a metal layer interconnect.

2 6.2 Fixing the Cell Height

For the standard cell based design, all the cells in the same row, have to be of the same height, hence it is essential that the cell height be fixed to a user specified value. Cell height can be fixed by explicitly joining a constraint between the two extreme nodes, i.e., *source* (S_y) and *sink* (T_y), of G_V of weight equal to the required cell height.

2 6.3 Fixing Connector Positions

Keeping cell abutment in view, there must be a common platform for positioning the I/O pins of a cells. For this reason the connectors of a cell have to be fixed at some position along the cell boundary. A standard rule is to fix the connectors at a distance of $(integer + 1/2)$ of the *routing pitch*, from the origin of the cell (S_W corner of *Abutment box*) along the cell boundary. All the cells designed according to the above strategy have their connector positions fixed along the cell boundary, hence can be abutted easily. The connector positions can be fixed by identifying the corresponding mask polygons of *metal1/metal2* layer, the connector is connected to, and joining explicitly constraints from *source* to the respective polygon edge of the value equals to the distance of the connector from the *source*.

Chapter 3

Solving the Constraint Graph

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2 we discussed the process of generating constraint graph. in which the layout problem is formulated as a linear programming (L P) problem. The L P problem consists of a set of constraints and an objective function. The aim is to solve this problem in order to optimize the objective function, keeping in view that all the constraints are satisfied. Furthermore, in our case each equation in the L P problem has at most two variables. Hence the problem in algebraic form is translated into a graph theoretic form. The following is an illustration.

Let the set of constraints be as follows

$$Xb - Xa \geq 8 \text{ —————} 1$$

$$Xc - Xa \geq 12 \text{ —————} 2$$

$$Xc - Xb \geq 10 \text{ —————} 3$$

$$Xd - Xb \geq 10 \text{ —————} 4$$

$$Xd - Xc \geq 5 \text{ —————} 5$$

$$Xe - Xc \geq 10 \text{ —————} 6$$

$$Xe - Xd \geq 2 \text{ —————} 7$$

These set of constraints are represented by a directed graph as shown in Figure 25

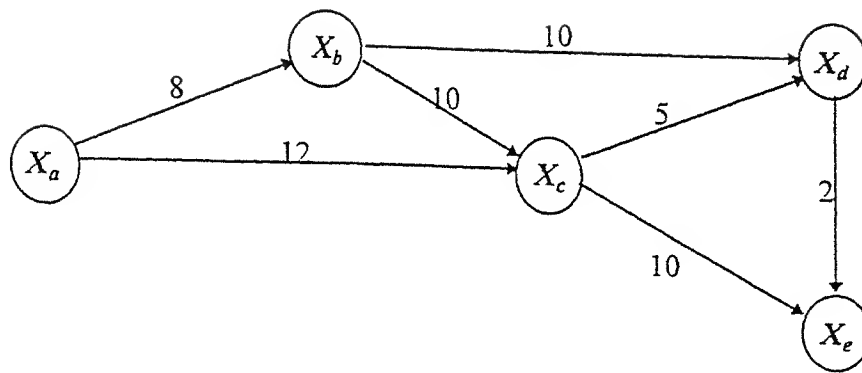


Figure 25 Illustrating graph representation of a set of linear equations

The task at hand is to select a group of constraints that leads to a solution to the problem. Among the set of constraints some may be redundant, e.g., constraints 2, 4 and 6 in Figure 25 are redundant constraints. Our task is to detect and remove all such redundant constraints present in the constraint graph.

It is possible that there may be several groups of constraints and that each group satisfies all the design rules. There arises the problem of choosing a group that minimizes certain parameters specific to the layout, which is called optimization. Each group of constraints leads to a different basic feasible solution. We follow the simplex method for solving the linear programming problem, but the problem is actually solved in graph domain rather than conventional tabular manner.

The key idea of the simplex method in solving the linear programming problem is to select a *basic feasible solution (bfs)*. This initial bfs may not correspond to an optimal solution. From this bfs, successively, one or more constraints are removed and an equal number of constraints are added without violating any design rule, and in a manner to reduce the objective function value. In this chapter we discuss the algorithms and various relevant issues related to finding a basic feasible solution to the problem, formulating the objective function and finally we will discuss algorithms and issues related to the optimization of a layout.

3.2 Basic Feasible Solution

Formally linear programming problem can be defined as follows

Instance : A real $m \times n$ constraint matrix A , a real m -vector b , and a real n -vector c

Configuration: All real n -vectors

Solution: All n -vectors x that satisfy the linear constraints $Ax \geq 0$

Minimize $C^T x$ where C = cost vector

The sets of feasible solutions to the constraints when represented in \mathbb{R}^n plane, define a region (may be bounded or unbounded) called a Polytope. Every point inside the polytope is a solution to the problem. The basic task of optimization is to find one among those points that minimize the cost function. Although every point inside the polytope represents a feasible solution, the following lemma restricts the search region of the polytope and minimizes the number of points to be checked for obtaining the minimum cost function.

Lemma :

Let P be the polytope defined by the set of inequality constraints and $c(x) = C^T x$ be the linear cost function. Then the minimum cost on P with respect to $c(x)$ is attained in a corner of P .

So instead of checking for the objective function value at any arbitrary point inside the convex polytope, the check is restricted only to the corner points of the polytope. When represented in graph domain each of the corner points of the polytope corresponds to a spanning tree. Each basic variable corresponds to a node in the constraint graph (also in the spanning tree). Each inequality (facet of the polytope)

corresponds to a constraint in the constraint graph. Conventional approach of solving linear programming utilizes a tabular format to store all the information. But the layout problem consists of a large number of variables for which the tabular format for storing and solving is quite space expensive. Conventional approach for solving L P problem by simplex method is described in [16]. Here, we describe only the algorithms and methods to solve the L P problem using the graph theoretic approach.

Conceptually our basic objective is to obtain a layout of minimum overall area. To achieve this the circuit elements and vertical interconnections are moved horizontally to the leftmost achievable position. Similarly the horizontal interconnections are moved to the bottommost possible location. Presently we generate vertical and horizontal constraint graphs taking all the lower bound type constraints into consideration, i.e. all the constraints are of the form

$$X_b - X_a \geq Wt.$$

where Wt is a positive real number specifying the required minimum separation between the two nodes. Thus our constraint graph G is in fact a single source single sink, edge weighted directed acyclic graph.

We define a solution set of G as the set $\{V_i(x), 0 \leq i \leq n\}$ such that it satisfies all the inequality constraints implied by the edges of G . Since V_0 represents the source (S), e.g., the left boundary of the layout, its position is normalized to zero. A basic feasible solution set $\{V_i(x)\}$ of G is defined as the minimum solution set, i.e., for any other solution set $\{V'_i(x)\}$ we have $V_i(x) \leq V'_i(x)$. All the nodes are placed at as minimal distance as possible from the source node. The value of $V_n(x)$, e.g., distance of sink vertex is the value of minimum possible width of the compacted layout. As the primary goal is to minimize overall area of the layout, all the nodes that fall in the longest path from the source to the sink remain invariant to the optimization process. The only nodes that can be moved during optimization phase are those which do not fall on the longest path from the source to the sink and which provide some slacks for movement.

3.2.1 Removing Redundancy from the Constraint Graphs

The constraint graph so far constructed may have a number of redundant constraints. Some of these redundant constraints can be removed before determining a bfs to the problem. The removal of redundant constraints helps to speed up the subsequent optimization steps. To remove all redundant constraints requires the following graph reduction. For each constraint $X_j - X_i \geq W_{ij}$, the longest path length from V_i to V_j is calculated. If the longest path length is larger than W_{ij} , then the constraint is redundant and should be removed. The task of graph reduction is equivalent to the construction of the transitive closure of the graph, which is though polynomial in time is still too expensive $O(N^3)$. Instead we use the simpler task of removing those arcs which satisfy triangle inequality. Let us consider three vertices V_i, V_j, V_k which are constrained by weights W_{ij}, W_{kj} , and W_{ik} as shown in the Figure 26. We will remove the arc $(V_i \rightarrow V_j)$ if the triangle inequality $W_{ij} \leq W_{ik} + W_{kj}$ holds good. Following is a formal algorithm to trim some of the redundant arcs from the constraint graph G .

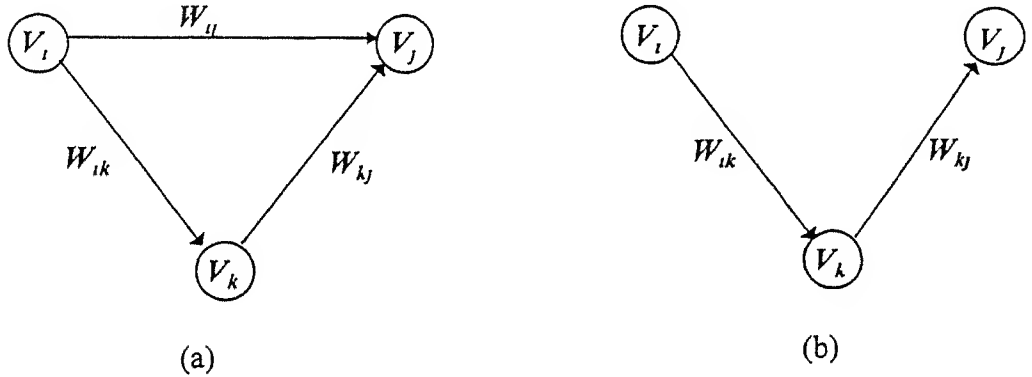


Figure 26 Illustrating removal of redundant constraint. Here $W_{ij} \leq W_{ik} + W_{kj}$.

Procedure Arc_trimming

Begin

for (each arc $e_{ij} = (Vi, Vj)$ belongs to G) do

Begin

for (each arc $e_{ik} = (Vi, Vk)$ belongs to G) do

Begin

if (arc $e_{kj} = (Vk, Vj)$ belongs to G exists and

$W_{ij} \leq W_{ik} + W_{kj}$)

Remove arc $e_{ij} (Vi, Vj)$ from the graph G ;

End;

End;

End;

The number of possible arcs going out from a node V_i or V_k is on an average, a constant, independent of the size of N . since most of the arcs are between neighboring nodes. The average time complexity of the arc trimming algorithm is some constant times $|E|$. The worst case complexity can be as bad as that of finding the transitive closure.

3.2.2 Searching a Basic Feasible Solution

After a selected set of constraints is removed from the constraint graph, we solve the longest path problem in order to find a basic feasible solution. The following is an algorithm for determining the bfs to the problem.

Procedure Search_bfs

Begin

- 1. From the graph G select a spanning tree T .*
- 2. Compute the distances of all nodes of T .*

3. *Check whether the tree T thus selected leads to a feasible solution.*
4. *If the tree is a feasible tree return.*
- else*
- Make an elementary tree transformation.*
- goto 2.*

End

The above procedure starts from an arbitrary spanning tree selected from the constraint graph. The tree thus selected may not satisfy all the design rules. The edges of G which are to be added to the spanning tree in order to make it feasible are detected and equal no of edges are deleted from the spanning tree by a process called tree transformation. The tree transformations are repeated until there are no infeasible are present in the resultant tree. This procedure is applicable to both the horizontal and vertical constraint graphs to determine a bfs. The steps defined in the above algorithm are explained and the algorithms for these steps are described in the following section.

3.2.2.1 Selecting Spanning Tree from the Graph

The spanning tree problem is basically an edge selection problem. More precisely, given an edge weighted graph $G = (V, E)$, the problem is to select a subset of edges $E' \subseteq E$ such that E' induces a tree $T = (V, E')$ that spans every vertex of the set V . The algorithm to select such a spanning tree is described as follows

Let G be a directed graph, free of selfloops (in fact the constraint graphs for the layout problems are self loop free). Let G consists of n vertices and e edges. The vertices are labeled $1, 2, \dots, n$ and the graph is represented as a linked list. For selecting a spanning tree, the edges of the graph are selected one by one and inserted into the tree if it does not produce any loop in the resulting tree. Each vertex is assigned to a set. Thus at start there are n different sets. At any stage each set represents a partial

spanning subtree constructed so far. For a connected graph G , at the end, all the sets are merged into a single set which contains all the vertices and a selected no of edges defining the spanning tree.

Lemma :

In the constraint graph G , there is at least one directed path from the source node to every other node. There is at least one directed path from every node to the sink node.

In the process of selecting the spanning tree, the root of the tree corresponds to the source node and one of the leaf node corresponds to the sink node. We are required to select a subset of edges $E' \subseteq E$ such that there is one and only one directed path existing from the source node to every other node. This implies that every node in the spanning tree must have one and only one in degree, the in degree of the source node being zero.

Define two arrays $D[]$ and $S[]$ as

For a node u belonging to the spanning tree, $D[u] = TRUE$ if the *in_degree* of u is not equal to zero. This implies the node u remains at the destination of some edge in the spanning tree. Similarly for a node u belonging to the spanning tree, $S[u] = TRUE$ if the *out_degree* of node u is not equal to zero. That means the node u is the Source of some edge belonging to the tree. If at any stage, an edge (u, v) is inserted to the spanning tree formed so far, $D[v]$ becomes TRUE and it will prevent any other edge (u', v) to enter to the spanning tree. Thus all the edges for which $D[v]$ is TRUE, are rejected from the spanning tree and these are marked as *co_tree* edges. If $D[v]$ is FALSE, an edge (u', v) can be inserted to the spanning tree. But the exact method of insertion depends upon the value of $D[u]$, $S[v]$, and $S[u]$. Figure 27 is an illustration. An algorithm to select a spanning tree from the graph is given below.

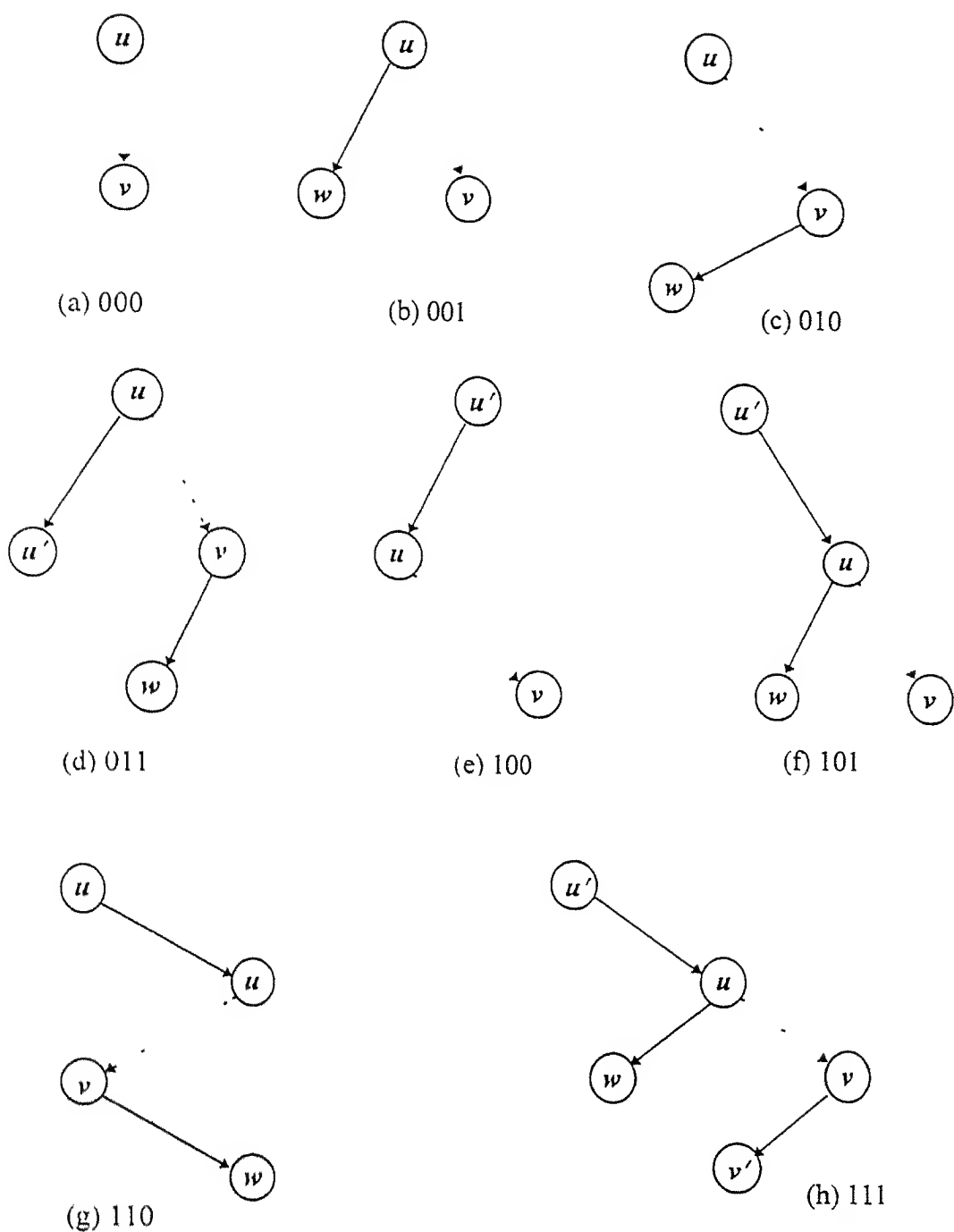


Figure 27. Trees arranged in order of $D[u]$, $S[v]$, and $S[u]$. Dotted edge (u, v) represents edge to be inserted to the trees. Solid edges represent the edges of the trees formed so far.

Procedure Select_Spanning_Tree(G)

Begin

1. Create a tree node and assign its various parameters corresponding to the source node (S_s) of graph G

2. for (all node u) Initialize :

$D[u] = FALSE;$

$S[u] = FALSE,$

3. for (each edge $(u,v) \in G$) do

Begin:

if($D[v] = TRUE$) Begin ·

Mark edge $e(u,v)$ as co_tree edge ;

Continue ;

End if ;

Check $D[u]$, $S[v]$, and $S[u]$;

Case 000 :

Neither u nor v is included in any of the subtrees formed so far. Create two tree nodes u and v . Assign various parameters to u and v according to the corresponding node in graph G . Join an edge from u to v and mark v as the son of u .

Case 001 :

Node u already exists in one subtree while node v is not in any of the subtrees. Create a tree node v , make suitable mapping between node v and corresponding graph node. Link u and v appropriately.

Case 010 :

Node u does not exists in any of the subtrees, while node v exists in one of the subtrees. Create a tree node u and make suitable mapping between u and corresponding graph node. Join an edge between u and v such that v will be recognized as a son of u

Case 011 .

Both the nodes u and v are present in separate subtrees T_u and T_v . Link u and v appropriately such that the two subtrees T_u and T_v will be merged into a single tree.

Case 100:

In some subtree, there is an edge from some node u' to node u and node v does not exist. Create a tree node v . Join an edge between u and v to make v the son of u .

Case 101

Node u is in one of the already constructed tree while node v does not exist. Create a tree node v and link u and v appropriately.

Case 110 :

Nodes u and v exist in two separate subtrees T_u and T_v . Join an edge from u to v so that v will be son of u and the two subtrees will be merged into a single tree.

Case 111 :

Nodes u and v exist in two separate subtrees T_u and T_v . Link u and v appropriately to merge the two subtrees into a single tree.

End for ;

End ;

3 2 2 2 Computing Distance of Every Node of the Spanning Tree

After selecting a spanning tree from the constraint graph, the next task is to compute the location of various nodes. Since the information about the spanning tree is stored in binary tree form, computing distance can be achieved by a *pre-order* traversal of the binary tree. The source node (S_s) is fixed at the location '0'. The location of successive nodes are determined by adding the edge weight to the distance of their father node. For an example, let X_u be the position of node u , edge $e_{uv}(u,v)$ belongs to tree T and W_t = weight of edge $e_{uv}(u,v)$. Then the position of node v is given by $X_v = X_u + W_t$. The following is a recursive routine that traverses the tree in *pre-order* and determines the position of all nodes.

Procedure Compute_dist(T)

Begin:

if($T \neq NULL$)

Begin :

if($T \rightarrow \text{father} = NULL$) $\text{dist}(T) = 0$;

else

$\text{Dist}(T) = \text{Dist}(T \rightarrow \text{father}) + \text{edge weight}$;

Compute_distance($T \rightarrow \text{son}$) ;

Compute_distance($T \rightarrow \text{brother}$) ;

End if ;

End ;

3 2 2 3 Determining Feasibility of Tree

The spanning tree selected so far may not lead to feasible solution, that satisfies all the design rules, i.e., some of the constraints originally present in the constraint graph may not be satisfied. The following lemma suggests the condition under which the selected spanning tree represents a basic feasible solution.

Lemma Every edge $(u, v) \in T$ defines one fundamental circuit/loop in the tree T .
 Define length of a fundamental loop defined by an arc $(u, v) \in T$ as

$$L^A = \sum Wt(v_i, v_j) \times Dir(v_i, v_j) \text{ for all } (v_i, v_j) \text{ belonging to the fundamental loop}$$

where $(v_i, v_j) = (v_i, v_j)$ is an arc in the fundamental loop defined by the edge (u, v)
 $Dir(u, v) = +1$ if the edge (v_i, v_j) is in same direction as the direction of arc (u, v)
 else $Dir(u, v) = -1$

The corresponding spanning tree T leads to a feasible solution if for all fundamental loops the length of the fundamental loop is non positive. In a formal way we say a tree T is feasible if for all cotree edges $(u, v) \in T^c$ $L^A \leq 0$

The following is an explanation of the above lemma

Let us consider the spanning tree as shown in Figure 78. The dotted arc represents the edge of the cotree and the solid arcs represent the edges of the tree. Edge weights are specified along with the edges. Consider an edge (u, v) of the cotree. The fundamental loop defined by the edge (u, v) is $u \rightarrow v \leftarrow v_7 \leftarrow v_6 \leftarrow v \rightarrow v_5 \rightarrow u$. The direction of edges are shown in Figure 78(b). The length of the fundamental loop $= 10 - 10 + 10 - 5 - 8 - 10 = 7$ which implies that the original tree is not a feasible one. The explanation for this infeasibility is as follows.

The node v is not placed at its minimal possible position. It is placed at 23 units away from node v_2 but if we follow the path $v \rightarrow v_5 \rightarrow u \rightarrow v$ we will obtain the position of node v as 30 units from node v which is the minimal (left most) position of node v . If we restrict ourselves to the original spanning tree it will violate the design rule between the node u and node v . These two nodes should be separated by a minimum distance of 10 units while these are actually separated by only 7 units only. To make the solution feasible we have to delete the edge (v, v) from the original

spanning tree and add edge (u, v) to the tree. This is called an *elementary tree transformation* in which one spanning tree is extracted from another by removing one edge from the initial spanning tree and then adding another edge to it. Here we will discuss the algorithm to check whether a given spanning tree leads to feasible solution. If the tree T leads to an infeasible solution we will detect the exact $(u, v) \in T$ which should be added to the spanning tree to make the solution feasible.

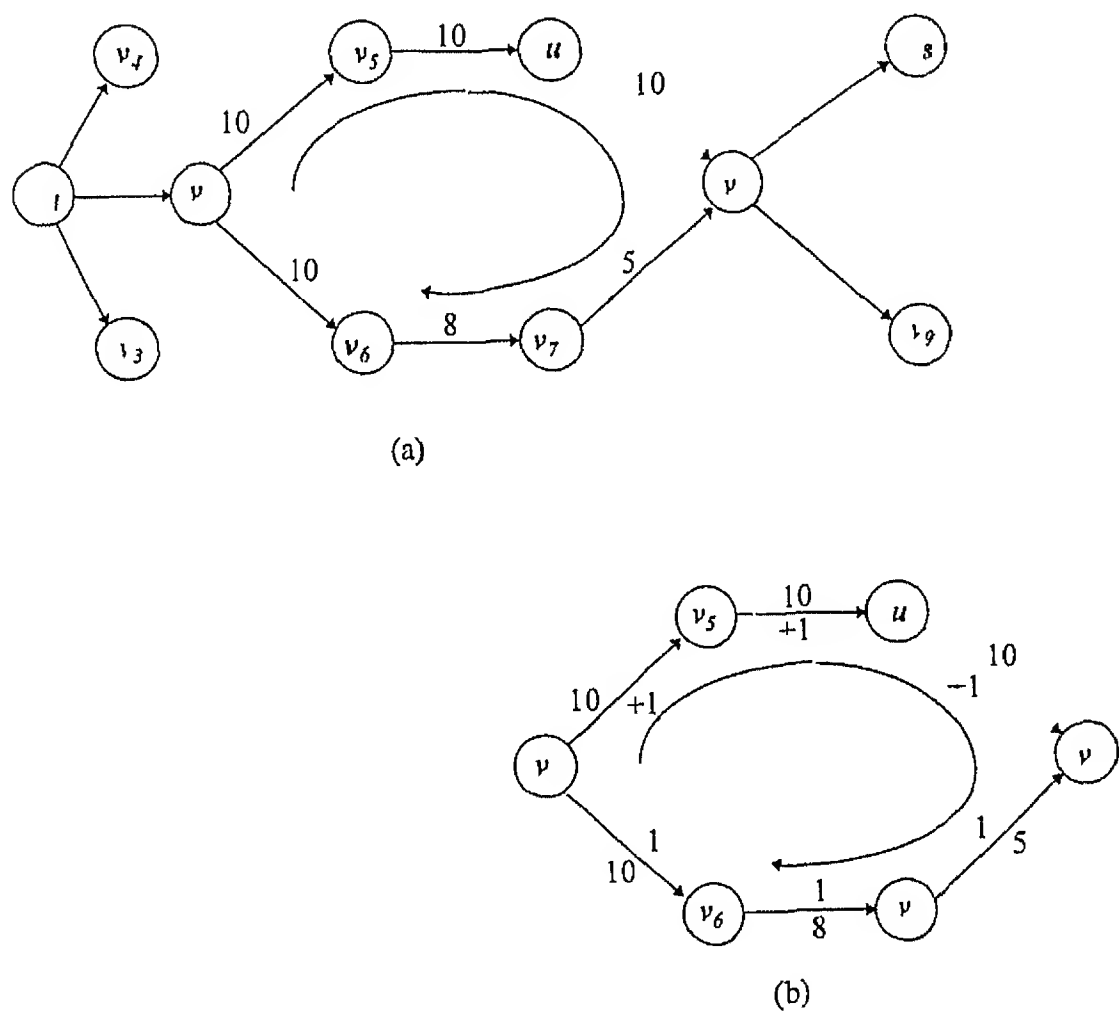


Figure 28 Illustration of a tree leading to a feasible solution

Procedure Check_Feasibility(T)

Begin

for (every $(u, v) \in T$) *do*

Begin

$wt(u, v) = \text{weight of arc}(u, v)$

$L^f = wt(u, v) + \text{Dist}(u) - \text{Dist}(v)$

if ($L^f > 0$)

Begin

Infeasible arc = (u, v)

return(FALSE)

End if

End for

return(TRUE)

End

There are $E - N + 1$ edges present in cotree. Hence the time complexity of the algorithm is $O(E)$.

3.2.4 Tree Transformation

In the previous stage we detected the edge (u, v) which must be added to the spanning tree in order to make the solution feasible. Simultaneously one of the edge which is originally present in the spanning tree must go out of the tree. Any edge e_{ij} of the fundamental loop that belongs to the T and with direction $+1$ may be a suitable candidate for removal. Without loss of generality we choose the edge $(u, v) \in T$ to be removed. Following is the algorithm for tree transformation.

Procedure Tree_transformation(T, u, v)

Begin

- 1 Detect the edge $(u, v) \in T$
- 2 Mark $edge(u, v)$ as *co_tree edge*
- 3 Mark $edge(u, v)$ as *tree edge*
- 4 Make suitable modification in the original tree T to remove $edge(u, v)$ and to add the edge $e(u, v)$

End

3.3 Optimization

3.3.1 Need of Optimization

The basic feasible solution obtained in previous step shrinks every element to a corner (origin) of the layout plane and produces a layout of minimum overall area. The overall area of the initial layout does not depend on all the primitives/elements only a few control the layout area. We call those elements as the critical elements specific to a given layout instance. However the noncritical elements have plenty of freedom to position themselves in the original layout within some limited range without affecting the overall layout area. One of the important considerations in minimizing the layouts is to preserve the uniform distribution of layout elements throughout the entire layout plane. The layout obtained from the solution of the longest path problem suffers from the following demerits

All the non critical elements are packed towards one corner of the layout which introduces higher degree of non uniformity to the layout

The resultant layout has a longer total wire length. Hence it contributes to more parasitic resistance which degrades the circuit performance

Figures 29 and 30 illustrate the importance of wire length minimization. In Figure 29(a) the blocks *A*, *B* and *C* are interconnected by wires and the total wire length amounts to 11 units. This configuration is obtained after solving the longest path problem and without wire length optimization. Figure 29(b) is the corresponding layout obtained after wirelength optimization. Here net wire length = 9 units.

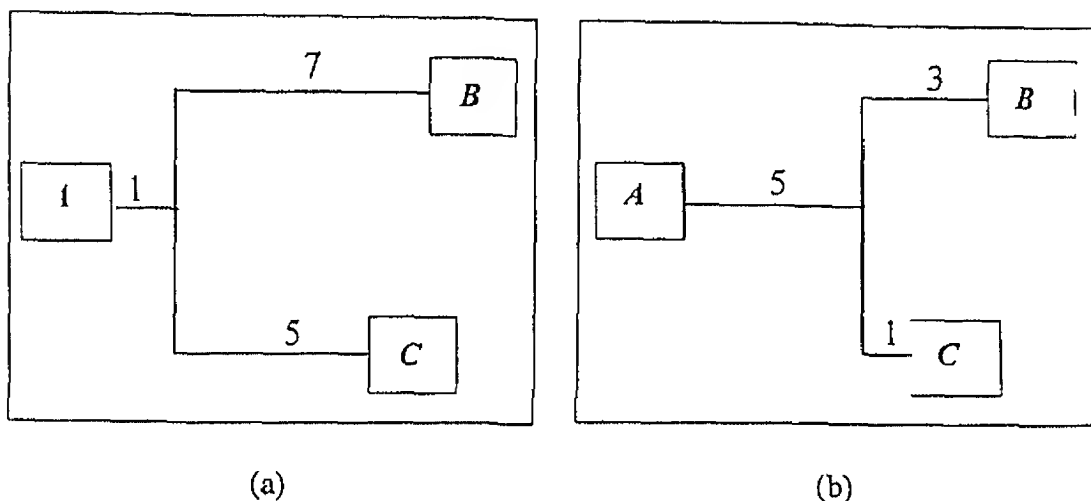


Figure 9 Illustrating wire length minimization

In Figure 30(a) one end of the wire *W* is pulled to the left most achievable position while its other end is connected to an element on the critical path. Hence the net wire length is unnecessarily higher. In Figure 30(b) the same layout is shown after optimizing the wire length. Here the net wire length is reduced and hence results in an improved circuit performance without compromising the net layout area. In Figures 31 and 32 we present more cases where circuit performance can be improved by optimizing the layout. Consider a contact location where two wires belonging to different layers are interconnected together as shown in Figure 31. Here *wire1* is made up of *metall* and *wire2* is made up of *polysilicon*. Resistivity of poly is orders of magnitude higher than that of metal. Hence wires on poly layer significantly increase signal delay. In Figure 31(a) the contact is placed at its minimal possible position. However the contact has some freedom in positive *X* direction. In Figure 31(b) the same layout is shown with the same net wire length but with the contact

shifted towards right. This results in a decrease in wire length on *poly* layer while the wire length on the *metal1* layer increases by an equal amount. By this process the overall length of the wire remains the same as its previous value but the effective resistance is reduced by significant amount which ensures better circuit performance.

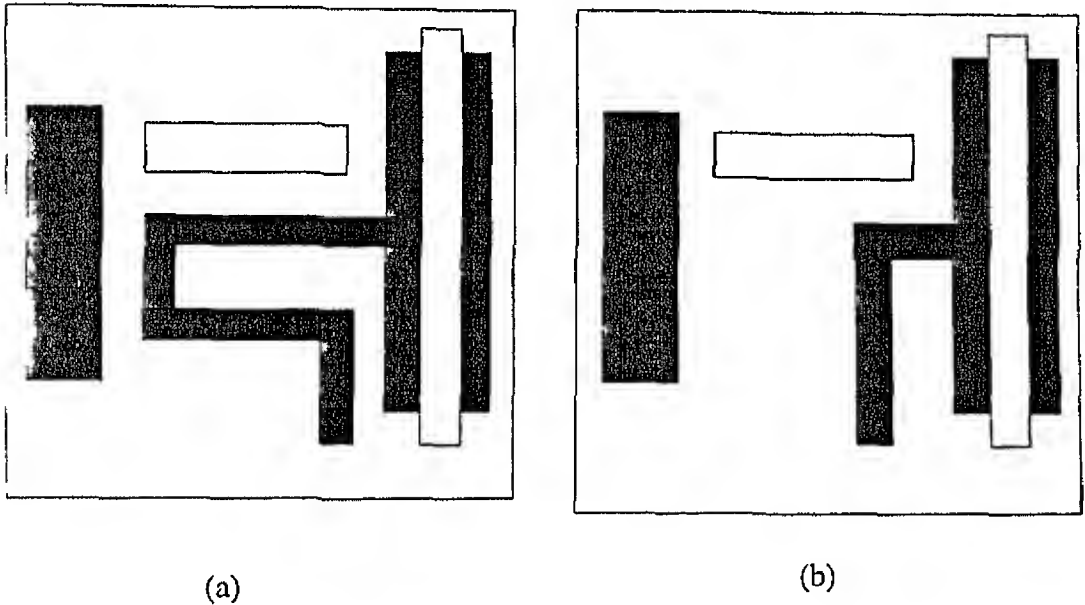
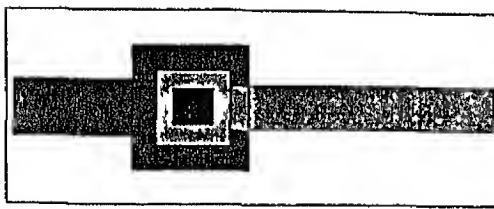


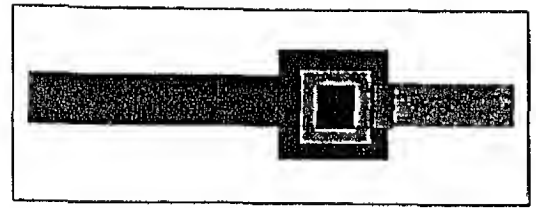
Figure 30 (a) A layout compacted without wire length minimization

(b) The same layout compacted with wire length minimization

In standard cell based design the I/O specifications hence the connector positions are fixed along the cell boundary. Figure 32 shows a cell for which the connector position is fixed. Consider the case where a *metal2* wire associated with a connector making contact with a *metal1* wire (Figure 32(a)). In Figure 32(a) the layout is obtained after placing all the elements at their minimal possible positions which results in extending the *metal2* wire and shrinking the *metal1* wire. If we assume *metal2* layer is more costly than *metal1* layer then the layout involves more cost. Figure 32(b) shows an alternative arrangement for the same functionality but with shorter wire length for *metal2* layer. This arrangement is a result of wirelength optimization and involves lesser cost.



(a)

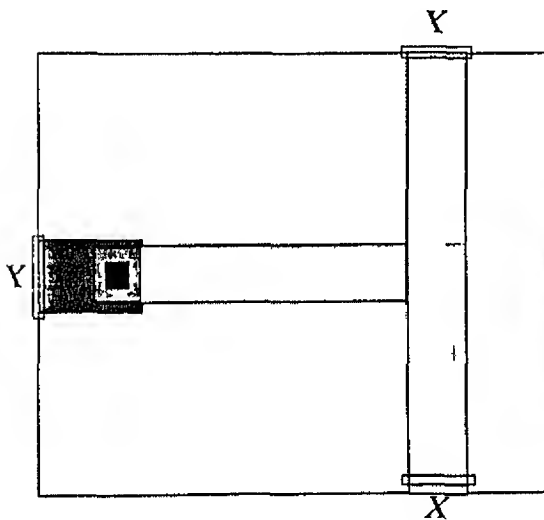


(b)

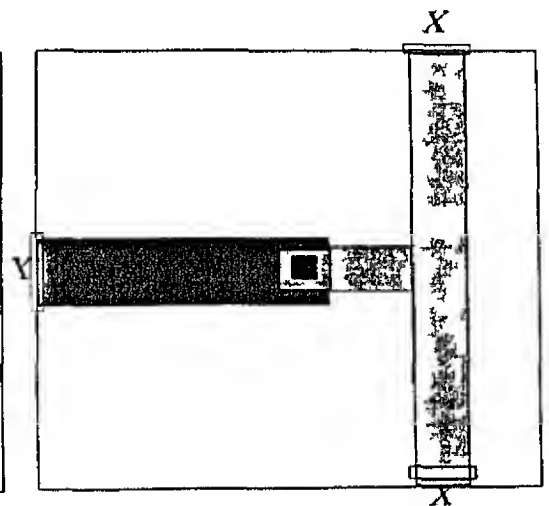
Figure 31 Moving the contact to reduce overall parasitic resistance

(a) Layout without wire length optimization involves higher resistance

(b) Layout after wire length optimization. Length of wire in *poly* layer is decreased expanding wire on *metal* layer. Overall length remains same but effective resistance reduces significantly



(a)



(b)

Figure 32 Illustrating wire length optimization. X represents connector position

(a) Layout before optimization involves more wire length on *metal2* (more costly) layer. Hence involves more cost. (b) Layout after wire length optimization. Wire length in *metal2* layer is reduced by increasing wire length on *metal1* layer. Overall resistance is reduced.

3.3.2 Formulating the Cost Function

The characteristic parameter specific to a layer type which is of our interest is the sheet resistance of the layer. The sheet resistance of various layers are given in Table 4. Chapter 4. Various ways of formulating the cost function are described in [17] and [18]. In [18] two different strategies have been considered to model the cost function. One of them involves a relation with the perimeter of the mask polygon to model the cost function while the other takes into account the area of the mask polygon to model the cost function. In our approach we associate each edge with a cost parameter which we define as given below.

Definition

For an arc (u, v) associated with a particular layer, the cost of arc C is defined by the rate of change of resistance of the associated mask layer with respect to the length of the arc. If the arc is not associated with a single layer or not at all associated with a layer, its cost is set to zero.

Let for an arc (u, v) R = Resistance of the corresponding mask considering the direction $(u \rightarrow v)$ as the length of the sheet and the other dimension as the width of the sheet. Let R be the sheet resistance of the corresponding mask layer.

L = Length of arc (u, v)

W = Width of the sheet (refer to Figure 3.3)

Cost $C = dR / dL$

$R = R \times \text{Number of squares on the sheet defined by arc}(u, v)$

$= R \times (L / W)$

Thus Cost $C = R / W$

As the distance between u and v changes while determining the feasible solution length and width of the sheet should refer to the dimensions of the most recently available sheet. So we determine the cost parameters after getting a feasible solution to the problem. The cost function to be optimized can be formulated as

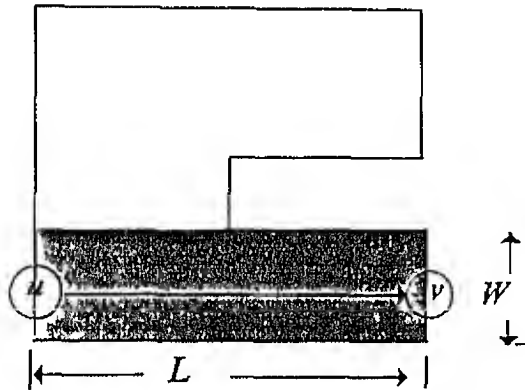


Figure 33 This polygon represents a particular mask layer. Cost of arc (u, v) will be decided by the incremental resistance of the shaded region.

$$Z = \sum_{u, v \in G_H} C_{uv} \times (X_u - X_v) + \sum_{u, v \in G_V} C_{uv} \times (Y_u - Y_v)$$

The two different terms are optimized separately in two passes: one in horizontal and the other in vertical direction.

We have assigned a cost to each of the arcs which represents the incremental resistance with respect to the length of the arc. Consider a node which is connected through a number of such arcs. Moving that node towards right will reduce some arc length and increase the other. The immediate conclusion is to move that node as much towards right as possible if such movement results in a decrease in the total resistance. We define the cost parameter for each node as follows:

Definition For a node v the cost of v (C_v) is defined as the increase in the distance per movement of the node v towards right by unit distance

So C is the sum of the costs of arcs which connect the node v to some other nodes i.e. $C = \sum (C_{vu} - C_u)$ for all nodes u connected to v . So the cost function for optimization is now linearized and can be given as

$$Z = \sum C \times X$$

Consider a component T_k containing nodes v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n . If we move this component as a whole by unit distance, the net increase in cost will be equal to the increase in cost of individual nodes and can be given by

$$C(T_k) = \sum_{v_i \in T_k} C_i$$

3.3.3 The Algorithm

The optimization problem is solved using the simplex algorithm specialized for handling linear constraints modelled by graphs. The input to the optimization problem is the feasible solution set (feasible spanning tree) obtained in the previous stage. This feasible tree serves as the starting solution for simplex algorithm. In this section we will describe the optimization procedure in detail. Following is the algorithm.

Procedure Optimize_Layout(T, G)

Begin

- 1 Determine the longest path from the source node (S) to the sink node (T)
- Mark the nodes that fall on the longest path as critical nodes and the arcs on the longest path (critical path) as critical arcs

for (each node $v \in G$)

Begin

```

    if( $v$  is not a critical node)
      Begin
        Determine the cost of moving that node by unit distance towards right
      End if
    End for
    for (each arc  $e_j (v_i, v_j) \in T$ )
      Begin
        if( $e_j$  is not a critical arc)
          Begin
            1 Partition the tree  $T$  into two subtrees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  by splitting at  $v \in T_1$ 
              and  $T_2$  contains the source node and  $v_j \in T_2$ 
            2 Compute the cost of moving  $T_2$  as a whole by unit distance which is
              equal to sum of costs of node  $v, v \in T_2$ 
            3 if (cost  $\leq 0$ )
              Begin
                Determine the arc of  $G$  which offers minimum slack for the movement
                of  $T_2$ . Add that edge to the original tree and remove edge  $(v, v_j)$  from
                the tree. Make suitable modifications in the original graph  $G$ 
                Re-compute the distances of various nodes
              End if
            End if
          End for
        End for
      End

```

In the above algorithm we are considering one component at a time. Each component is defined by one of the non-critical edge of the feasible tree. If we remove a non-critical edge $e_j(v_i, v_j)$ from the tree T , the tree will be partitioned into two subtrees T_1 and T_2 . Assume that the node v_i belongs to the subtree T_1 which also contains the source node (S) and the node v_j belongs to the other subtree (T_2). Note

that all the critical nodes will always remain in the subtree T_i . The nodes belonging to T_i will remain undisturbed for the current pass and the nodes belonging to T_j will exploit the possibility of movement to reduce the cost function.

The cost of moving all the nodes in T_j by unit distance as a whole is considered. If this cost is nonpositive, it implies that it is beneficial to move the component. The next step to be considered is the maximal distance by which we can move this component T_j . The interaction of the set of nodes in T_j with the rest of nodes will decide this maximal distance. The component T_j may have different slacks with respect to the nodes in T_i , however, it is the minimum slack that needs to be considered. This is because we cannot move a component by a distance more than the minimum available slack. The corresponding edge must be used to merge the two subtrees T_i and T_j into a single tree and the edge $e_j(v_i, v_j)$ is to be removed. If the cost of moving the component as a whole is positive, the edge $e_j(v_i, v_j)$ is not removed from the initial tree but marked as visited and will not be considered further. When all the non-critical edges are visited, the algorithm terminates and the resultant tree obtained corresponds to the optimal solution.

An example of optimization process is shown in Figures 4.35 and 4.36. Figure 4.35 describes the initial constraint graph in which the edge weights and edge costs are shown. The cost function is given by $Z = 10(X_6 - X_3) + 10(X_4 - X_1) + 100(X_7 - X_4)$.

Figure 35 represents one basic feasible solution to the problem. The positions of various nodes as per this solution are shown. The cost of this solution is calculated to be 2250. The longest path from source to sink is shown in dashed line. The nodes v_0, v_3, v_7 and v_8 are in the longest path, hence are the critical nodes. The positions of these nodes are invariant to the optimization process. The nodes v_1, v_3, v_4 and v_6 have some freedom for movement towards right. The cost of moving these nodes are $C_1 = 10$, $C_3 = 10$, $C_4 = 90$ and $C_6 = 10$. We can immediately conclude that by moving nodes v_1, v_3 and v_4 towards right will reduce the cost. Moving v_6 will increase the cost, hence it will not be moved.

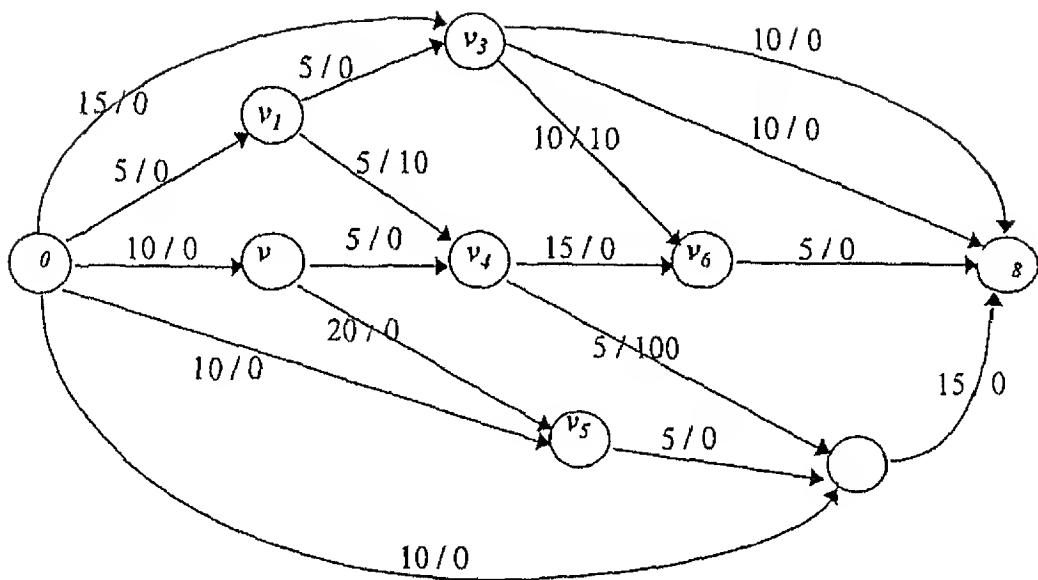


Figure 34 An Example of constraint graph Edge weights and edge costs are shown

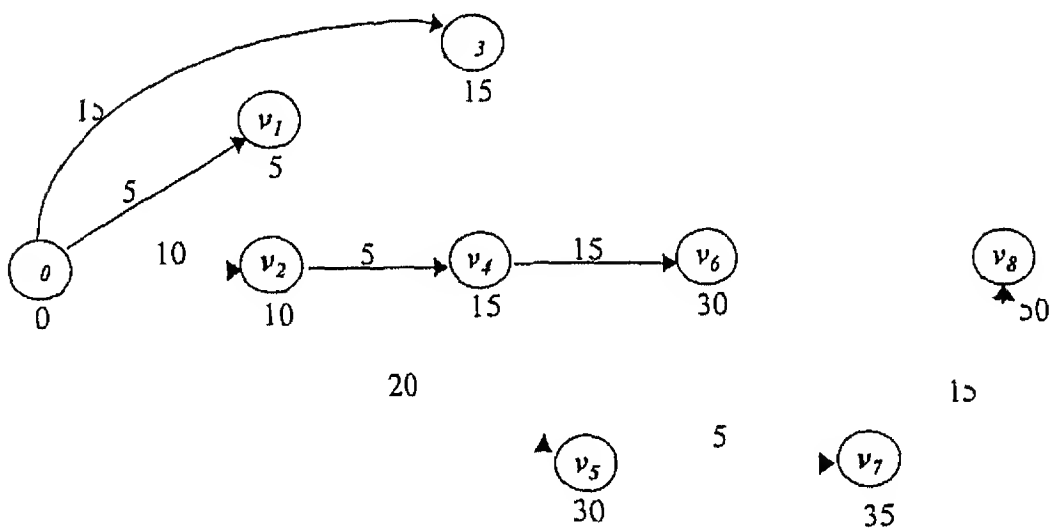


Figure 35 The *basic feasible solution* to the problem The locations of all the nodes are shown The cost corresponding this solution = 2250

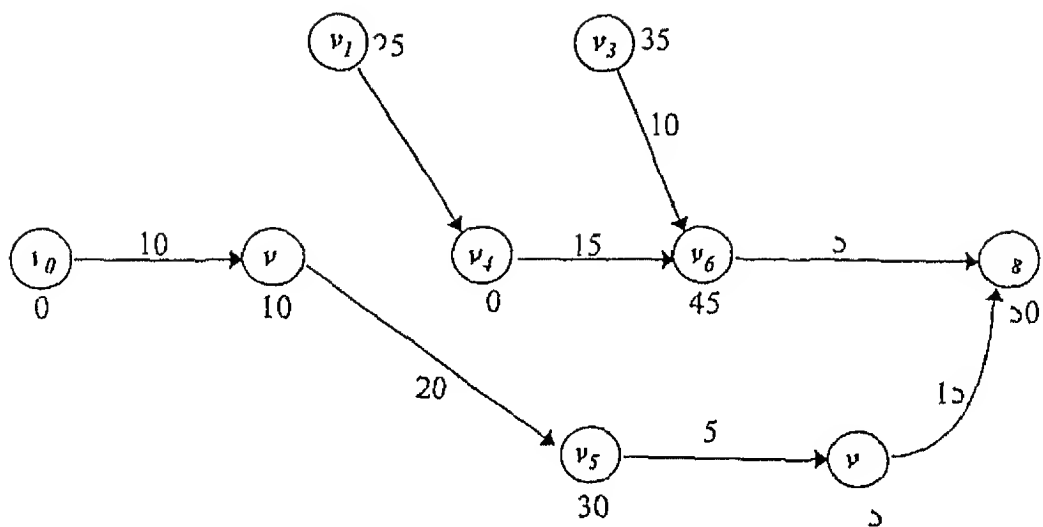


FIGURE 36 *Optimal solution* to the problem. The positions of various nodes are shown. Cost of this solution = 650

Although moving the node v_4 reduces the cost, its movement is restricted by the node v_6 . But when the edge (v_2, v_4) is considered, the nodes v_4 and v_6 remain in same component and the effective cost of moving the component as a whole = 80 and there is some slack for the movement. The edge (v_6, v_8) provides the minimum slack. Hence the edge (v_6, v_8) is added and (v_2, v_4) is removed. Figure 6 shows the tree corresponding to the optimal solution. The positions of various nodes are shown. The cost of optimal solution = 650 which shows significant reduction in the cost compared to the solution obtained by solving the longest path problem.

Chapter 4

Results, Conclusions and Scope for Future Work

4.1 Results

In order to validate the applicability of the proposed algorithms, all the mentioned algorithms are implemented using C programming language and run on UNIX based HP 9000 workstation. A number of experiments have been made on some of the existing cells of *ARCUS Technology Limited* with a set of design rules specified in [3]. All the layouts are retargeted to a 0.5 micron process. The various mask layers and the detailed listing of all the design rules applicable for this process are given in [3]. We took the sheet resistance (ohms/square) as the characteristic parameters pertinent to a mask layer which are provided to us by *M/s ARCUS Technology Ltd*. Table 4.1 shows values of these parameters. Table 4.1 shows the results obtained for different test cases and Table 4.2 depicts the time taken by various steps for those test cases. From these results it is evident that the constraint generation phase takes the maximum time and is as expected. This is because of the extra computation necessary to generate as few irredundant constraints as possible which in turn speeds up the latter stages of layout recycling.

Table 4.1 Performance analysis of TECHMIG for various test cases

Parameters of comparison	Layout #1	Layout #2	layout #3
No. of primitives	9	30	39
No. of nodes in HCG	3	70	126
No. of nodes in VCG	23	70	126
No. of arcs in HCG	38	253	488
No. of arcs in VCG	40	257	565
Input cell size (μ)	11 x 6	28 x 26	13.8 x 7.8
Output cell size	8.3 x 4.4	12.9 x 18.6	12.1 x 19.6
Cost function value before optimization	13698	235283	4366063
Cost function value after optimization	5175	2394110	3760058

Table 4. Timing analysis of the various stages of *TECHMIG* with respect to various test cases shown in Table 4.1

CPU time in second					
Input Layout	I/O Processing	C/G Generation	Obtaining a b f s	Wire Length Optimization	Total Time
Cell # 1	0.17	0.05	0.04	0.01	0.27
Cell # 2	0.24	0.98	0.02	0.03	1.27
Cell #	0.31	8.01	0.36	0.13	8.81

Table 4 3 Sheet resistance of various mask layers

Name of the layer	Symbol of the layer	Sheet resistance (Ω / \square)
N diffusion	LCND	3 0
P diffusion	LCPD	2 5
N well	LCNW	740
P well	LCPW	740
Polysilicon	LCP	2 8
Contact	LCC	3 8
Metal1	LCM1	0 053
Metal2	LCM2	0 053
V11	LCC2	1 7

4 2 Conclusions

A core tool *TECHMIG* for basic technology migration has been developed by using newer and extending existing algorithms for its various building blocks. The constraint graph compaction method has been adopted for designing the important compactor block in *TECHMIG*. In this method the topological description of a given instance of cell layout is first translated into a pair of constraint graphs called the *horizontal constraint graph* and the *vertical constraint graph* respectively. These graphs serve as a model for formulating the compaction problem as a linear program. Several algorithms based on computational geometry have been employed for the topological analysis of a given layout instance and for generating the two constraint graphs corresponding to irredundant constraints. These have been discussed in details. A graph theoretic version of the *simplex method* has been coded to solve the optimization problem with the minimum delay wire length as its objective function.

This objective function is modelled as the weighted sum of the wire length. This *TECHMIG* has been tested on a few cells from an existing cell of *M/s ARCUS Technology Limited*. The retargeted cells are obtained without any user intervention. In each case, the final cell is not only smaller, it also has the total wire length optimized for minimum wire delays.

4.3 Scope for Future Work

We have developed a basic compactor tool *TECHMIG*. Further enhancements need to be carried out in *TECHMIG* to provide it with more features and flexibility so that it can result in more compacted layouts which have better timing performances. The present work can be extended to include a number of issues as given below:

1 Hierarchy Preservation Larger industrial designs generally include hierarchical descriptions of cells. To aid the design of larger cells, the present work can be extended to support hierarchical descriptions of the input cells. The technology migration of such cells can again be done in an hierarchical manner.

2 Automatic Jog Insertion/Deletion In a practical layout, there may exist few areas where a straight wire can be jogged to reduce the overall area of the layout. Also, there may exist some zigzag portions of a wire which can be straightened to improve the timing performances of the cell by reducing the net wire length without affecting the overall layout area. Such considerations have not been included in the present work.

3 Critical Path Breaking In optimizing a layout, *TECHMIG* maintains the critical path as an invariant in the optimization phase. The idea behind such a critical path indentation is that the portions of the layout which correspond to the critical path are exactly minimum according to the current set of design rules and user constraints. In

general a cell can be made smaller by moving the objects off the critical paths into non critical areas thereby creating parallel critical paths This feature needs to be included in *TECHMIG*

4 Contact Optimization If certain portions of the target layout permits more number of contacts than in the source layout without increasing the overall area of the cell incorporating such extra contacts can result in lower parasitic and improved current carrying capabilities Such a facility can be added to the existing tool for obtaining a better layout A group of parallel contacts can be merged together to form a super contact of a larger size In the final layout this super contact can be sliced into an appropriate number of contacts of the desired size

5 Plowing Plowing can be used interactively to rearrange the geometry of a cell by compacting a sparse layout or creating space in a dense layout to result in a better fabrication yield The user places a *plow* (a horizontal or vertical line segment) into the layout and gives a direction and distance the plow is to move According to the specifications the plow is then moved through the layout and the material behind it is stretched (if necessary) and the material in front of it is compressed

6 Metal Layer Translation Present trends in the layout design phase of *VLSI* chips involves the use of larger number of metal layers for routing to reduce the overall cell size Thus it may become essential to migrate existing cell layouts to a new process with larger number of metal layers Unfortunately none of the commercially available tools for layout conversion or technology migration incorporates this essential feature

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